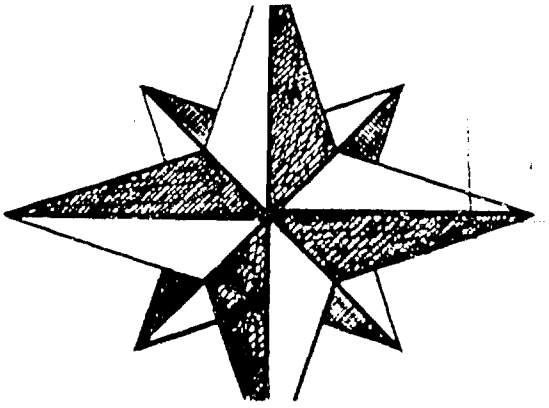
LEADERSHIP MONOGRAPH SERIES

MONOGRAPH #8

A MATRIX OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS

OCTOBER 1976

LEADERSHIP FOR THE 1970s



U.S. ARMY ADMINISTRATION CENTER

STUDIES OF LEADERSHIP FOR THE PROFESSIONAL SOLDIER

LEADERSHIP MONOGRAPH SERIES

This monograph represents a continuation of the series initiated as an outgrowth of the Leadership for the Seventies Study and the CONARC Leadership Board. The Leadership Monograph Series is intended to keep Army leaders abreast of pertinent and recent findings and research in the fields of management and leadership.

The previous monograph, "A Progressive Model for Leadership Development", published in June 1975, proposed a sequential model for leadership development. The thesis of that endeavor was that leadership development is a successive and long-term educational process building at each career step on prior experience and education.

The present monograph explores and develops the themes presented in the previous monograph and focuses primarily on the organizational aspect of leadership. Nine essential dimensions of organizational leadership are identified in terms of both five hierarchial levels and identifiable behaviors. The analyses of the nine dimensions in relation to levels results in a matrix of organizational leadership requirements which are necessary for effective organizational functioning.

The views expressed in this monograph are those of the authors and not necessarily those of the Department of Defense, Department of the Army, or the U.S. Army Administration Center.

Your comments, criticisms, and contributions beneficial to improving this publication or to identifying future research topics are welcome. Correspondence should be addressed to this Headquarters, ADMINCEN, ATTN: ATZI-CD-OED.

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MONOGRAPH #8

(6) Leadership for the 1970s.
A MATRIX OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS.

by

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(12) 116

CONTENTS

FIGURES

FOREWORD

The following study is an attempt to identify and clarify critical dimensions of organizational leadership. Nine dimensions are identified as a result of an extensive review of behavioral research, management literature, and a survey of prominent industrial executive development programs. Each leadership dimension is examined in terms of identifiable tasks and behaviors and in relation to organizational level. In most cases, a dimension is related to five different levels, ranging from the first-line supervisory level to the highest executive level. Within the Officer Corps the range includes Second Lieutenants through General Officers; for the Non-Commissioned Officer Corps the range covers E-4 supervisors through E-9 Sergeant Majors. While most dimensions can be examined according to five hierarchical levels, for some it is possible to focus on only three levels. Together, the nine dimensions comprise a matrix of organizational leadership functions that are required for organizations to operate effectively.

The matrix which is presented is intended to be an important first step in describing what leaders do within an organizational context. The ultimate aim of this investigation is to devise a more effective leadership development program than presently exists. It is hoped that this study will provide the necessary foundation for the establishment of a sequential and progressive leadership development effort within the Army.

PART ONE

Before beginning an analysis of organizational leadership dimensions, is is necessary to clarify distinguishing characteristics of organizational leadership. This section addresses these characteristics, raises the value of relating leadership requirements to hierarchical level, and outlines a classification system capable of examining leadership training needs.

INTRODUCTION

Organizational Leadership

Traditionally, the leadership process has been examined in terms of the leader, or in terms of the leader's interaction with the group. The first approach suggests leader traits or attributes which purportedly contribute to effective leadership. The second concentrates on the leader's ability to facilitate group interaction and member participation. Much of this past research effort has focused on the emergence of leadership in groups.

It cannot be denied, however, that much of the leadership in highly industrialized societies is clearly institutionally prescribed in the form of requirements of the leadership position established by the organization. One finds that organizational leadership reflects two primary characteristics: on the one hand, leadership efforts are oriented toward organizational objectives; on the other, leadership roles are established by the organizational structure so that positions of leadership are imposed on the group. Since the reality of organizational life is that objectives must be accomplished, appointed leaders are expected to influence the members of their group to achieve the goals of the organization.

A Focus on Organizational Level

In reviewing the literature regarding leadership, one finds that there has been a shift in emphasis from the small group to the organization as the unit under analysis; and from the personality of the individual leader to the job requirements (i.e., behavioral demands) of the leadership role. The literature also suggests that there are important differences in the activities of appointed leaders (or managers) at different levels in the organization.

One might inquire why attention should be focused on differences in hierarchical level. Are not the problems and demands faced by leaders the same, despite the level of their positions? Traditionally, leaders and managers have been treated as a homogeneous group. As Nealey and Fiedler (1968) asserted, not even that bulk of organizational theory which treats leadership extensively gives much attention to differences between levels of management. In fact, the standard industrial promotion process of choosing management successors from among lower-level managers--because they are successful at that level--tends to confirm that the career progression model in industry traditionally has been one which operates on the assumption that success at

higher levels is guaranteed by displaying the same skills which produced success at lower levels. As leadership investigators began to focus on observable behaviors within an organizational context, however, differences in task requirements became apparent. Examining job requirements according to organizational level addresses the appropriateness of a given behavior at a given level, and takes into consideration the interrelatedness of position, function, role, and behavior. Such an approach therefore has ramifications for leadership training.

One way to improve organizational effectiveness is to ensure that leaders and managers are optimally equipped to handle the constantly changing demands they face as they move upward in the organizational hierarchy. A primary vehicle to enhance effectiveness is leadership training. The implication for directing that training in a particular skill be given to a manager before he reaches a level where his position demands call upon him to exercise that skill is obvious: training can be matched to an explicitly identified skill need.

A Classification System for Leadership Dimensions

In order to adequately examine leadership training needs, a system of classification allowing an investigation of the leadership process in terms of concrete behaviors or skill areas integral to leadership functioning is required. What is ultimately desired is a taxonomy of managerial and leadership dimensions as defined by position level. This task is a difficult one considering that many of the component elements of leadership cannot be observed or manipulated in the same way as elements or objects peculiar to the physical and biological sciences. Nevertheless, if one presumes that leadership behaviors or outcomes can be observed and described, then he can possibly classify these descriptive statements.

The aim of this monograph, then, is to classify skills and competencies representing essential requirements for effective organizational leadership functioning. The emphasis is upon preparing a prospective leader to display skill proficiency once he assumes a leadership role. Therefore, it is necessary to first address the kinds of skills demanded of the position incumbent at various levels of functioning. Only then can one address sufficiently programs and opportunities conducive to developing skill proficiency. The value of using a taxonomy as a structure to present dimensions of leadership rests in its effectiveness as an organizer and a communication device: it provides a structured, common language enhancing communication. A taxonomy is a classification scheme that clarifies terms and concepts (e.g., "problem solving") which otherwise would remain vague. Its instructional use lies in its identification of instructional objectives.

As a result, a taxonomy permits evaluation of the effectiveness of training programs by facilitating the measurement of individual learning using instructional objectives as standards.

It should be emphasized that the scope of this monograph is limited. The authors neither specify any particular instructional methods or curricula nor suggest leadership styles. Instead, a systematic, prescriptive model of processes and procedures is presented, facilitating both leadership training and development.

Use of Definitions

Because the intent is to develop a prescriptive organizational leadership model, the literature review has concentrated on that body of knowledge traditionally referred to as leadership and management theory. Precise definitions of leadership and management have been avoided. Leadership and management are such diverse concepts that the attempt to create a generally accepted definition becomes so profoundly involved that it hinders rather than helps further thought on the subject. A definition serves the purpose of a map. Any attempt to completely explain a complex term (e.g., "leadership") can only result in a map so detailed as to be the equivalent of the "territory" it is intended to represent. Thus, the map loses its functional value. For this reason, the reader will note throughout the monograph--particularly in the section on leadership dimmensions--a number of terms which are described rather than specifically defined. It will be left to the reader to construct an appropriate definition of each dimension.

PART TWO

The previous section established organizational leadership as the focus of this inquiry. Important pragmatic implications of organizational life were applied to the leadership process. The organization thus provided the unit of analysis and attention was focused on behavioral demands implicit in the leadership role.

This section presents nine dimensions of organizational leadership. The intent is not only to identify the dimensions but also to describe the methodology employed in their derivation.

Completing this section is an organizational leadership matrix that relates each of the nine leadership dimensions to five hierarchical levels.

THE DERIVATION OF DIMENSIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Historical Overview

Early researchers explained leadership factors in terms of general function-related behavioral orientations particular to the leadership role. Ohio State University was the forerunner in conducting research into factors of leadership. Factor analytic studies of the nine original Ohio State dimensions (derived from 1,790 original statements of leader behavior) led to the identification of two broad orientations: (1) Initiating Structure and (2) Consideration. These two dimensions were incorporated into an important instrument to measure leader behavior: the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), first published in 1950 (Hemphill, 1950; Hemphill and Coons, 1957; Fleishman, 1953a; Stogdill, 1959). Stogdill's subsequent efforts involving various versions of the LBDQ likewise were factored into the above two factor orientations (See Stogdill, 1974). Simultaneously, during the 1950's various researchers at the University of Michigan (Katz and Kahn, 1952; Likert, 1961a, Cartwright and Zander, 1960) identified four dimensions of leadership related to high productivity: Differentation of Supervisory Role; Closeness of Supervision, Employee Orientation, and Group Relationship. Numerous other attempts, perhaps best summarized by Bowers and Seashore (1966), proposed similar leadership factors.

An analysis of these early efforts indicates that some researchers identified leadership dimensions from information gleaned in job description data, while others concentrated on experimentally relating indices of leadership effectiveness to such dependent criteria as job satisfaction, productivity levels, turnover and absenteeism rates. Results from these studies provide data which largely emphasize leadership dimensions in terms of style orientations (e.g., "employee-orientation" and "production-orientation"). When the field of management is included in the literature analysis, the complexity of the research endeavor increases significantly. Management literature adds that collection of information defining leadership as general functions which managers typically perform (e.g., controlling, organizing, planning, directing, coordinating, etc.).

Since comparisons between similar kinds of jobs are desired, grouping behavioral components facilitates the derivation of tasks for individuals engaged in similar work. Explaining the leadership role in terms of general function-related activities or behavioral orientations provides useful descriptive information. Nevertheless, in seeking an optimal training forum, what is needed is information which leads to prescriptive training objectives--in other words,

what is needed are discrete behavioral and cognitive elements and not abstractly defined style orientations that are elusive and difficult to observe. The type of information addressing what leaders do considers job requirements as opposed to personal styles applied by different individuals to the same type of job. Training efforts are not maximized by focusing on general managerial activities such as directing, planning, and controlling.

The extent of behavioral accounts of some of the researchers, though impressive, is of little help in defining dimensions because the various authors made only limited comparisons between different managerial jobs. In contrast, the studies using questionnaires and checklists, leading through factor analysis to just two basic dimensions of leader behavior, certainly oversimplify the full range of behaviors demanded by managerial jobs. While such terminology serves well to explain the general content of a manager or leader's job, it does not lend itself well to the design of a training curriculum since it lacks the specificity needed for observation and measurement.

The Methodological Problem

The problem is the following: leadership dimensions need to be identified as well as possible in behavioral terms. On the one hand, these behaviors need to be discrete enough to be perceived and dealt with singly, but on the other they cannot be so discrete as to preclude comparisons between jobs. Factoring behavioral requisites too broadly (e.g., "consideration orientation") results in dimensions which are too abstract; and explaining the managerial job in terms of general function-related activities (e.g., planning, directing, etc.) loses specificities about the activities and tasks actually performed by the individual. As Carlson (1951) stated, interpreting managerial and leadership behaviors in terms of broad functions camouflages those operations which are integral activities. The general term for an activity (e.g., "planning") is too vague. Since the activity is actually a composite of subset operations which lead to a certain result, "unity of action," subsuming the separate subset activities under a generally descriptive label loses sight of the actual operations that comprise the unified activity. Miller (1973) concurred that the risk engendered by selecting an inappropriate factor label is a misinterpretation and/or loss of information. Therefore, if one desires to address a behavior, he should select a factor label that is itself a behavioral term.

If behaviors are interpreted as style orientations, they elude observation and measurement. Consequently, it becomes impossible to denote subtle changes in behavior. Styles are too inferential; they are what Miller (1973) called indicators of "motivational inference"

and therefore not heuristically useful. What now becomes apparent is that the essence of the managerial or leadership role lies somewhere between the voluminous specifics of the incumbent's daily activities and the broadly defined orientations or functions.

The Methodology Selected

In order to clarify the managerial or leadership role, it becomes necessary to transcend the various labels used in the literature to identify critical behaviors--words such as "role," "function," "behavior pattern," "leadership style," "factors," "skills," etc. By grouping similar behaviors, it then becomes possible to identify major dimensions essential to an organizational leadership role. To ascertain dimensions or factors, the authors performed an interpretive analysis of each study reviewed. The paradigm or framework selected to compare leadership dimensions or factors was based upon one utilized by Bowers and Seashore (1966) who compared leadership factors in terms of their relationship to two basic orientations: people and production.

Since the present focus is on organizational leadership, organizational realities confronting appointed leaders and organizational objectives have assumed a high degree of importance. Therefore, the authors included in their analysis the management literature as well as a survey of managerial practices in selected corporate settings. This research revealed that a paradigm describing organizational leadership behaviors must expand upon the two basic leadership factors of people orientation and production orientation to include management-related factors. Figure 1 shows how the inclusion of a broader array of the literature (e.g., Hemphill, 1960; Stewart, 1967) introduces additional factors which expand the focus of earlier research inquiries. Hemphill and Stewart are offered as illustrations of this extension--not so much because they highlight organizational concerns (such as business reputation and institutional ability to survive) but because they represent landmark management studies, providing examples of the most thorough inquiry into the behavioral requirements of different managerial jobs. Each study approached the development of managerial job dimensions from a different perspective.

Hemphill's and Stewart's individual efforts are especially important because they provide substantial indication that managers' jobs differ from one another both in substance and in mode of operation. The studies emphasize that functional labels yield incomplete information about the substance of a manager's job, or about how and why he spends his time on the job--thus indicating the need to study a representative sample of managers so as to extrapolate useful work dimensions. In addition, Hemphill and Stewart suggested that managerial jobs differ by

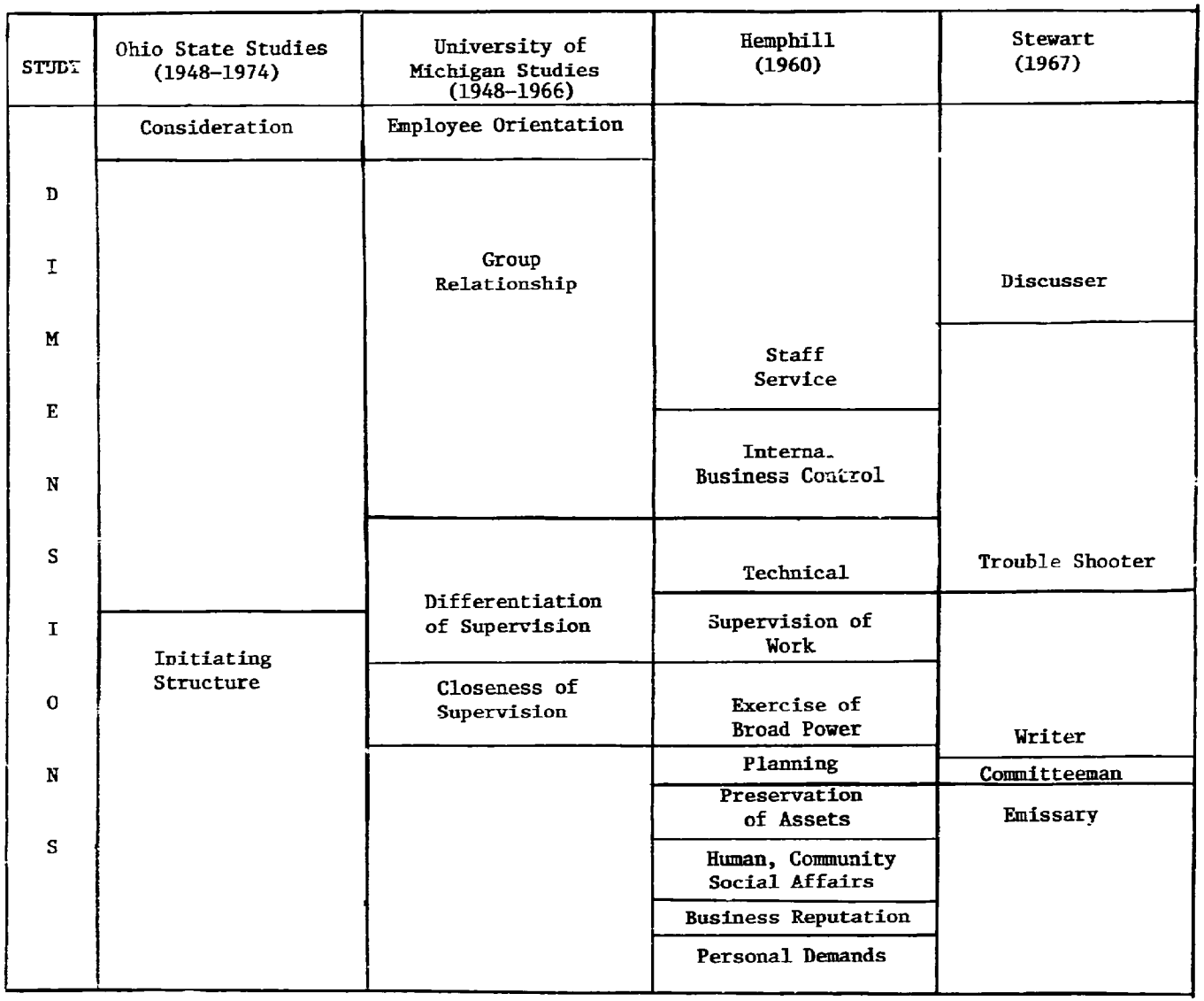

Figure 1 A Paradigm for the Study of Leadership Factors

function and organizational level. Thus, one must consider that different responsibilities, and therefore different behaviors, are important and effective at different levels and in terms of varying functions.

Employing the above paradigm, the authors conducted an interpretive analysis of a significant portion of the leadership and management literature. Findings were systematically plotted and portrayed graphically as illustrated in Figure 3. (This chart represents much but not all of the relevent literature reviewed. The reader should follow the factors horizontally across pages 15-16 and 17-18 to arrive at the dimensions.) The entire resulting chart was scrutinized carefully so as to glean major points of agreement and/or trends. The total effort just described led to the identification of nine leadership dimensions and their relevant elements as depicted in Figure 2. The author's interpretive analysis was facilitated when the dimensions were considered in terms of organization level. Focusing on managerial level allows one to interrelate leadership position, function, and role with leadership behavior. Concentrating on the appropriateness of a given organizational level clearly highlights that level dictates behavior, on the one hand, and points out, on the other, that the problems and demands faced by managers or leaders will vary according to the level of their functioning. Accordingly, five organizational levels were chosen for the anslysis of the nine leadership categories. When it became difficult to analyze a dimension in terms of five discrete levels, three levels proved more appropriate; in these instances, descriptive statements were listed between the appropriate levels.

Figure 2 depicts the leadership model chosen to relate the nine dimensions to organizational levels. This model serves as the framework for any ensuing discussion of the nine leadership categories.

The reader is cautioned that the breakout into nine categories (as opposed to 6 or 12) reflects a conscious attempt to identify a taxonomy which is both consistent with the data analyzed and useful from a pedagogical point of view. To take issue with the exact number of dimensions (and elements) or the number of organizational levels is to lose sight of the value of describing leadership in terms of identifiable components. As long as the model encompasses all organizationally-relevant leadership behaviors, the specific number of dimensions is unimportant. The next section describes in detail the content of each of the nine major categories.

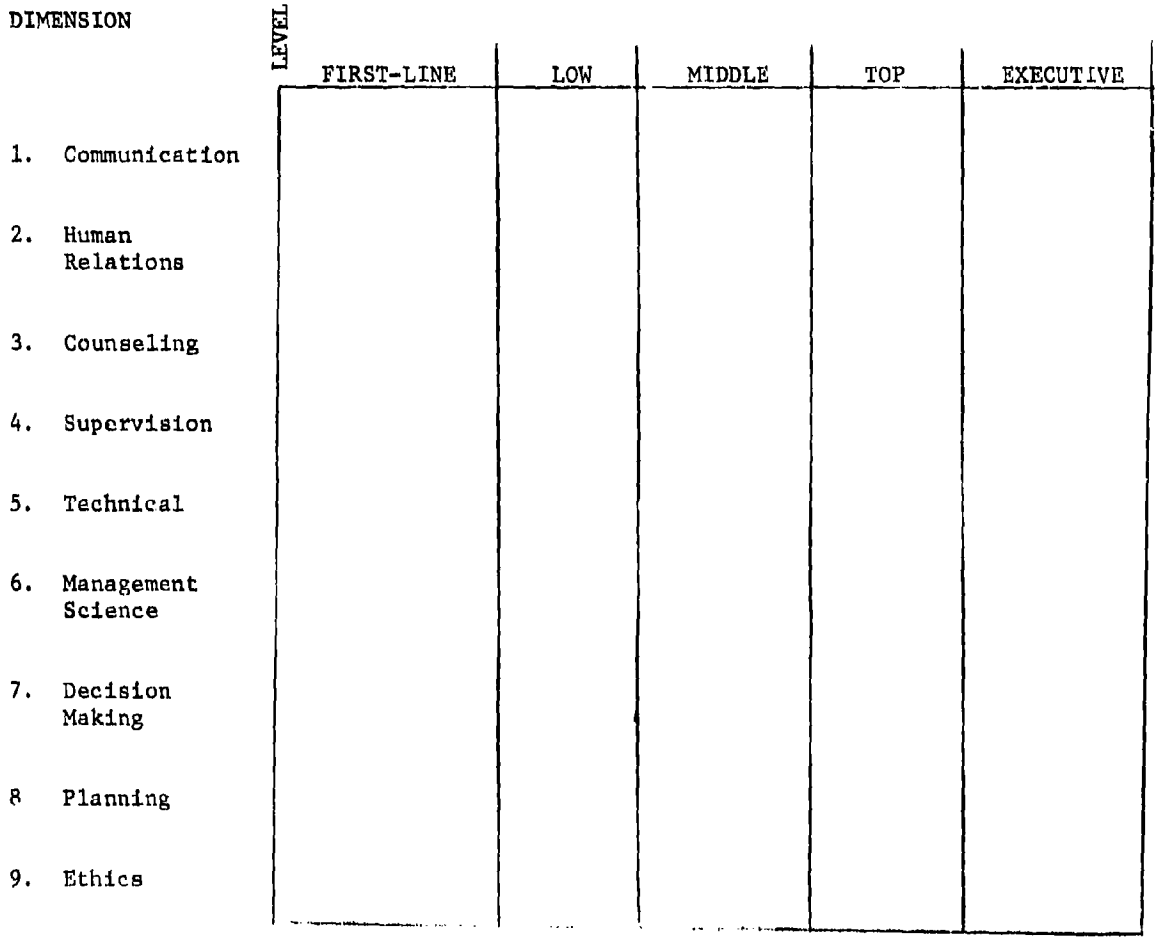

Figure 2 A Model for Analyzing Organizational Leadership

BEHAVIORAL LITERATURE

OHIO STATE STUDIES

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN STUDIES

STOGDILL & SHARTLE (1949)	HEMPHILL & COONS (1957)	HEMPHILL & COONS (1950)	STOGDILL (1953)	STOGDILL, SCOTT & JAYNES (1956)	STOGDILL (1959)	HALPIN & WINER (1957)	HALPIN & CROFT (1960)	D. KATZ (1950)	R. KAHN & D. KATZ (1951)	R. KAHN (1958)	R. KAHN (1960)
Personnel Considerations	Maintenance of Membership Character	· Fraternization			· Consideration	· Consideration (Sensitivity)	· Consideration	· Employee Orientation	Employee Orientation Group Relationships	· Provide Direct Need Satisfaction	· Employee Oriented
Communication	· Group Interaction Facilitation Behavior	Communication		· Writing							
Negotiation					· Persuasiveness · Influence						
Evaluation Inspection		· Evaluation	· Administrators · Professional Consultants	· Consulting			· Aloofness				
Coordination Scheduling		· Integration	· Coordinators · Schedulers · Maintenance	Coordinating · Scheduling	· Integration						
Technical		· Organization · Domination	· Technical Experts	· Supervising	· Conflict Resolution · Tolerance of Uncertainty and Freedom					· Modifying Employee Goals	
Supervision			· Directors		· Role Retention		· Thrust		Closeness of Supervision		
Research Planning	Objective Attainment Behavior	Initiation		Planning	· Initiating Structure · Production Emphasis	· Initiating Structure (Production Emphasis)	· Production Emphasis	· Production Orientation	Differentiation of Supervision	· Enabling Goal Achievement · Structuring the path to Goal Attainment	Goal Setting Planning · Mission Oriented
		· Production Emphasis		· Attending Conferences	· Conceptual Skill						
Public Relations		· Representation	· Public Relations		· Representation						

FIGURE 3

THE DERIVATION OF NINE DIMENSIONS OF LEADERSHIP

BEHAVIORAL LITERATURE

COMMUNICATION LITERATURE

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN STUDIES

CARTWRIGHT & ZANDER (1960)	LIKERT (1961)	BOWERS & SEASHORE (1964, 1968)	D. KATZ & R. KAHN (1966)	R. KATZ (1955, 1974)	F. MANN (1965)	FLANAGAN (1951)	HEMPHILL (1960)	BLAKE & MOUTON (1964)	HERSEY & BLANCHARD (1969)	FIEDLER (1963)	T. O. JACOBS (1971)	BURNS (1954) DUBIN & SPRAY (1964) HORNE & LUPTON (1965) PIERSOL (1955) REDDING (1972) CLEMENT (1973)
	Supportive Relationships	Support		(Intragroup) · Human Skill	· Human Relations Ability			· People		· Leader Member Relations		· Interpersonal Communication
Group Maintenance Functions		· Interaction Facilitation		(Intergroup)					· Democratic		· Interaction Skills · Communication	· Organizational Communication
					· Administrative Ability	· Administrative Management	· Staff Service Internal Business Control		· Persuasive			
			· Interpretation of Structure						· Laissez Faire		· Bargaining · Timing	
	· Technical Knowledge · Group Methods of Supervision		· Utilizing the Formal Structure · Supervision	· Technical Skill		· Technical · Supervising	· Technical · Exercise of Broad Power · Supervision of work			· Role Power · Task Structure	· Work Facilitation	
	· Planning · High Performance goals	· Work Facilitation · Goal Emphasis	· Introduction of Structural Change · Policy Making · Conceptual Ability	Conceptual Skill	· Conceptual Ability	· Planning	· Planning	· Production	· Task Directed			
· Goal Achievement						Organizational Responsibility · Personal Responsibility	· Preservation of Assets · Business Reputation · Human, Community, Social Affairs · Personal Demands				· Individual Ethics	

FIGURE 3

THE DERIVATION OF NINE DIMENSIONS OF LEADERSHIP

CLEMENT, G. D., AND AYRES, D. B. A MATRIX OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS, 1973

MILITARY LITERATURE					MANAGEMENT LITERATURE					
FM 22-100 "MILITARY LEADERSHIP"	DA PAM 600-15 "LEADERSHIP AT SENIOR LEVELS"	CONARC LEADERSHIP BOARD (1971)	ARMY WAR COLLEGE STUDY (1971)	ARMY MGT PHILOSOPHY STUDY (1972)	MINTZBERG (1975	DRUCKER (1974)	REESER (1076)	HINRICHS (1975)	CARLSON (1951)	PFIFFNER & SHERWOOD (1960)
· Consideration			· Consideration	· Consideration	(Interpersonal Role)	· Human Relations	· Human Relations	· Interpersonal Interaction		· Interpersonal Relations
					· Develops Peer Relationships					
	· Motivating	· Motivation			· Motivates (Informational Role)	· Motivating	· Motivation			
· Counseling		· Counseling	· Counseling		· Disseminates Information	· Communicating				
· Communication	· Communication	· Communication	Communication	· Communication	· Establishes Information Networks			· Communication	· Information Processing	· Communication
		· Facilitation	Facilitation		· Negotiates					
	· Controlling	· Conflict Resolution	· Conflict Resolution		· Conflict Resolution					
						· Measuring			· Evaluating	· Evaluation
			· Problem Solving						· Inspecting	
			· Decision Making		(Decisional Role)					· Problem Solving
· Decision Making				· Decision Making	· Makes Decisions	· Decision Making			· Decision Making	· Decision Making
						· Organizing			· Coordinating	
· Technical Skill	· Technical	· Technical							· Technical	
	· Directing									
· Supervision	· Supervising	· Supervision		· Supervision				· Supervision (Identification with Supervisory Roles)	· Supervision	· Supervision
					· Allocates Resources					
						· Goal Setting		· Goal/Objective Setting		· Production Emphasis
								· Goal Directed Attitude		
	· Planning			· Planning			· Planning			· Planning
					· Deals with Ambiguity		· Conceptualizing			· Policy Formulation
								· Understanding Performance Expectations		
	· Training					· Developing	· Developing Future Managers	· Employee Development and Advancement		
					(Liaison Role)		· Public Relations	· Managerial Development		· Public Relations
						· Social Responsibility				
						· Integrity	· Integrity (Commitment to Hard Work)			
· Ethical Sensitivity		· Personal Ethics	· Ethics						· Personal Development	
· Personal Standards				· Personal Growth						

FIGURE 3
THE DERIVATION OF NINE DIMENSIONS OF LEADERSHIP

MANAGEMENT LITERATURE									DIMENSIONS OF LEADERSHIP
R. STEWART (1967)	HAAS, PORAT & VAUGHN (1969)	STOGDILL (1974)	KRANNERT (1967)	MACKENZIE (1969)	MAHLER & WRIGHTNOUR (1973)	LUNDBERG (1972)	ALPANDER (1974)	LIVINGSTON (1971)	
		· Interpersonal		· People	· Intra-Organizational Focus	· Focus on People	· Interpersonal Communication	(Capacity to Show Empathy) · People Oriented	· HUMAN RELATIONS
		· Social Nearness					· Motivation		· COUNSELING
· Discusser			· Information Processing	· Communicating	· Managerial Skills		· Communications Systems		· COMMUNICATION
	· Negotiating	· Leadership Effectiveness · Group Task Supportiveness		· Controlling Things · Analyzing Problems	· Controlling	· Internal Control · Focus on Things (Technical)	· Controlling		· MANAGEMENT SCIENCE
· Trouble Shooter			· Decision Making	· Decision Making	· Organizing · Technical Skills · Specialized Functional Knowledge and Skills		· Organizing		· DECISION MAKING
· Writer	· Coordinating	· Technical · Administration					· Technical Aspects of the Task · Supervision		· TECHNICAL
	· Supervision			· Directing	· Directing		· Delegating Power	· Action Oriented (Ability to Implement Action)	· SUPERVISION
		· Task Motivation						(Ability to Exploit Opportunities)	
· Committeeman	· Planning			· Planning	· Planning	· Dealing with Change	· Planning	· Problem Finding	· PLANNING
		· Intellectual		· Ideas					
				· Staffing		· Focus on Environment (Ideas, Concepts)			
					· Extra-Organizational Focus				
· Emissary			· Social Responsibility						
		· Integrity							· ETHICS

FIGURE 3
THE DERIVATION OF NINE DIMENSIONS OF LEADERSHIP

CLEMENT, S. D., AND AYRES, D. B. A MATRIX OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS, 1976.

PART THREE

Part II described the methodology selected to derive the nine dimensions of organizational leadership. A matrix for examining these dimensions in relation to five organizational levels was proposed.

This section describes each of the nine dimensions in detail. Discrete behaviors and tasks relevant to each dimension at each organizational level are specified; when specific tasks and behaviors cannot be clarified, the dimensions are described in terms of processes. The descriptions are not absolute; further inquiry and criticism will be integrated into subsequent revisions of the description of each dimension.

The nine dimensions will be discussed in the following order: Communication, Human Relations, Counseling, Supervision, Technical, Management Science, Decision Making, Planning, and Ethics.

NINE DIMENSIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Introduction

This section explains the nine dimensions of organizational leadership as factored in Figure 2. The discussion of each dimension concludes with a detailed chart depicting elements applicable to particular organizational levels. The reader is cautioned that a certain amount of redundancy exists in the treatment of each dimension because of the considerable overlap between them. A detailed examination of Figure 2 underscores the difficulties inherent in trying to interpret the widely disparate findings in terms of discrete categories.

COMMUNICATION

Background

One of the more critical dimensions--if not the most critical--of the leadership and management process is the ability to communicate. As Dubin (1962) emphasized:

> At all levels of management a major investment of time is made in getting information from lower levels of the organization as a basis for knowing what is happening, and presumably also as a basis for follow-up decision and action. (p. 24)

Today, it is common to attribute leadership and management problems to a breakdown in communication. The idea of a single set of communication skills as a requisite to effective managerial or leadership functioning implies an oversimplification of an extremely complex function. Communication skills encompass several elements and impact upon every managerial or influencing activity. Communication activity is often oversimplified to mean only sending and receiving messages; this implies a focus on interpersonal communication. But communication activity also has an organizational focus (Redding 1968).

Description

If one looks at an organization as a system for processing various kinds of "inputs" to produce various kinds of "outputs," then he can

argue that the most basic of all inputs and outputs are informational. This is true because the effective flow of information is essential for organizational survival. In fact, an organization can be described as a communication network, or even as a network of networks (Redding, 1972). Information must be channeled between and among various locations for decisions to be made. The literature (Burns, 1954; Barnard, 1938; Piersol, 1955; etc.) indicates that the bulk (e.g., 80 percent) of a manager's time is devoted to some form of communication activity. Chester Barnard (1938), for example, asserted that the most important function of an executive was to establish an effective communication system. In general, research stresses how important communication skills are to effective decision making, planning, counseling, and human relations functioning.

Among the many approaches adopted to analyze communication activities, the description below of communication in terms of skills, suggested by Sanborn (1964), appears particularly appropriate to the present analysis. A skill-specific description of communication activity includes:

1. The sending skills--effective writing, speaking and presentation. They denote that information flow has a downward orientation.

2. The receiving skills--reading, listening and observation. They reflect an upward information flow.

3. The evaluation skills--the efficient relationship of language and thought processes.

The prime purpose behind the communication activities of the organizational communicator is the proper functioning of the organization. Redding and Sanborn (1964) analyzed organizational communication activity from two perspectives:

1. Communication behavior of individuals as persons.

2. Structural communication.

Adopting this format, the discussion which follows examines how communication behavior is differentiated by level in terms of two broad categories: interpersonal communication skills and organizational communication skills.

Variation in Communication Behavior According to Level

An analysis of the literature reveals that communication behaviors vary by organizational level. Pfiffner and Sherwood (1960) found that

first-level supervisors operate under considerable time pressures and have a high degree of personal contact with their peers and subordinates, a finding concurred in by Dubin (1961). The patterns of communication at the foreman level are horizontal and downward. The foreman has more in common with his subordinates than with his superiors. Davis (1953) reported that the most isolated supervisory level was the foreman level since this is the last link in both the formal and informal communication chain. Consequently, first-level supervisors lack substantial knowledge of company events. Nevertheless, foremen spend a notable amount of their workday (50 percent, according to a 1969 study of industrial foremen by Piersall) either in speaking or listening activity. One reason for the high degree of interaction between the supervisor and his subordinates is the former's concern with production details, a concern requiring a working knowledge of technical operations and accounting for his affinity with his employees. One of the more interesting studies of communication activity of first-line supervisors was conducted by Simpson (1959), who reported that the primary communication pattern of first-line supervisors is horizontal. Simpson found that communication activity was initiated for the purpose of problem solving and coordination as opposed to giving directions or reporting results. In addition, he concluded that mechanization reduced the need for close supervision (vertical communication) because machines, rather than foremen, set the work pace. Extremely high degrees of industrial automation, however, tend to increase the need for vertical communication.

The middle-level manager, who is in a position to rely upon staff experts to apply their technical expertise, finds that he has more in common with his supervisors; therefore, he looks upward in the hierarchy and structures the nature of his communication activity accordingly. A study by Pelz (1952) indicated that the capacity to exert influence upward is essential if a supervisor is to function successfully. Pelz argued that the supervisor's upward influence "conditions" his leadership style toward his subordinates; that is, his influence with his superiors determines in large part whether or not his supervisory behavior will cause subordinate satisfaction to rise or fall. Even when supervisors maintained a high degree of social interaction with their subordinates, employee satisfaction increased only when the supervisor had enough influence to substantially reward these behaviors. One way, suggested Pelz, to increase the amount of upward influence held by supervisors is to increase their voice in decision making.

Research has intimated that the upward flow of information is not always forthcoming. Read (1962), contended that the greater the upward mobility aspirations of subordinates, the less accurately they communicate problem-related information upward; this is especially true when superiors are perceived as high-influence figures but not fully trusted. Furthermore, there is evidence (Mellinger, 1956) suggesting that communication between two individuals who do not trust each other does not lead to understanding. Yet, even when a high degree of trust prevails, subordinates

with high mobility aspirations are inhibited from communicating potentially threatening information. Therefore, in situations in which a superior needs to have maximum information about a subordinate's work problems, he is frequently handicapped if he relies on normal channels of communication. Subordinates will filter and distort information to achieve attitudinal consistency and to please their boss. This indicates that it is beneficial for executives to realize that ambitious subordinates often avoid being totally truthful or generous regarding what information they proffer (Clement, 1973). A better way for executives to secure information may be to demonstrate that they can listen to subordinates' problems without using the information against them. In other words, management personnel have to learn to monitor subordinates' responses and to adjust their communication behavior accordingly.

Dubin and Spray (1964) concluded that mid-level managers spend the major portion of their day in face-to-face interaction or informal discussion as opposed to administrative paperwork or formal meetings. The fact that communication activity at the intermediate levels is comprised of talking suggests that what middle managers need to acquire or refine in terms of skill proficiency is the composite ability to shape and utilize person-to-person channels of communication, to influence, to persuade, and to facilitate. This conclusion is contrary to the suggestion offered by some researchers who state that all mid-level managers need in order to be effective are analytical skills, the ability to weigh alternatives, and decision-making competency.

Top-level executives spend a large proportion of their time talking--70 percent, according to Carlson's 1951 study (See also Burns, 1954). They also spend much time collecting information about their organizations. Davis (1953) and Clement (1973) both discovered that higher-level managers spent more time accumulating and synthesizing information than they do giving orders and advising, activities engaged in by lower-level managers. Executives at top levels also find that they must attend a large number of formal meetings. In fact, they spend so much time in attending meetings and processing vast amounts of information that they rarely (about once a day) have twenty minutes of solitude to devote to any one particular issue (Stewart, 1967).

In addition to collecting information, the executive assumes a public relations responsibility; consequently he must be able to express himself well so as to articulate positions effectively. Because the top-level executive is a highly visible organizational representative, not only must he be able to represent his organization's point of view but also he must be aware of his responsibility to be credible in his role as a company spokesman.

The Credibility of the Communicator

The above discussion about the nature of executive-level communication activity highlights another consideration: the importance of the communicator's ability to be influential. In Rhetoric, Aristotle said that of all the sources of a persuader's potential effectiveness, his credibility or "ethos" is by far the most effective. A speaker or persuader will be highly regarded if the audience believes that he is a person "of good sense, good will, and good moral character" (Zimbardo and Ebbeson, 1969, p. 17).

Hovland, Janis, and Kelley (1957) articulated a similar concept: they proposed that the three components of credibility are expertise, trustworthiness, and the intentions of the speaker toward his listener. Giffin (1967) identified five "dimensions of interpersonal trust"--or "credibility factors"--which imbued the communicator with "power": expertise, reliability, intentions (toward the message), dynamism (active or energetic behavior), and personal attraction. The point of the above discussion is to emphasize that there are skills which can be acquired and which in turn will enhance the credibility and image of the communicator. While these skills apply to all individuals in managerial positions and leadership roles, the public-figure posture of top-level executives implies that executives need to be aware of their role as an important organizational representative. This is especially true in those situations where they have frequent contact with government officials, national pressure groups, and client (customer) organizations.

Variation in Content Mix, Feedback, and Listening According to Level

Just as the amount of time spent in interaction with superiors, peers, and subordinates varies by level, the particular "content mix" of communication varies by echelon as well (Dubin, 1962; Burns, 1954; Weiss, 1956; and Clement, 1973). There is variation in the form of feedback, the effect of communication, and the type of listening required. For example, downward communication is more attuned to making internal decisions which have an increasing immediacy of impact as one descends the managerial hierarchy. Although high-level executives are just as concerned with the flow of information, their concern extends beyond internal issues, encompassing external organizational problems.

Feedback also is differentiated by level, as the literature shows. Feedback--which informs the communicator as to the effectiveness of his communication skill--involves individuals (in dyads or small groups) on the one hand, and interactions designed to facilitate the operations of a large organization on the other. Brown (1967) designated the latter as organizational feedback in contrast to

interpersonal feedback. Both forms of feedback characterize an organizational setting; however, it is important to note that managers at the lower levels are primarily involved in delivering interpersonal feedback, whereas high-level managers are preoccupied with organizational feedback. For example, foremen, who are responsible for performance appraisals, incorporate a great deal of information about the individual and consequently should be concerned with interpersonal feedback skills. In contrast, higher-level managers rely on status reports and other indicators of organizational performance. Thus, as Redding (1973) said, they must be able to deal with critical organizational elements. In other words, the format of feedback with which the manager is most concerned requires a particular perspective. As the manager rises in level, his perspective shifts from interpersonal issues to organizational issues. Because of his broader perspective, the manager at the higher levels must be more aware of the impact of communication on organizational functioning.

Listening behavior likewise evidences a shift when considered in relation to level. Kelly (1962) differentiated two types of supervisory listening: "empathic," which is necessary to conduct successful human relations (and therefore a fundamental skill need of lower-level supervisors who have a great deal of interpersonal contact with peers and subordinates), and listening for "comprehension" which implies factual recall. Since managers deal with more reports and written materials as they progress upward, they find that it becomes increasingly more pertinent to display comprehensive listening ability.

Communication Skills

The preceding discussion suggests a subdivision of the communication dimension into two factors: (1) skills involved with interpersonal communication; and (2) skills necessary to perform organizational communication. Interpersonal communication skills require the individual to listen with empathy and to focus upon his ability to be persuasive (i.e., by developing his expertise in a functional area and by being able to imbue trust). Leaders should therefore realize that the more others identify with their role, the more influential they will be. Effective communicators are able to deliver interpersonal feedback, to "read" nonverbal as well as verbal cues, and to utilize informal information networks (e.g., the grapevine). Organizational skills, on the other hand, call upon the individual to listen carefully in order to assimilate as much factual data as possible; and to concentrate on interpreting, interpolating, and synthesizing information. Leaders must be cognizant of the need to be credible; they must also be able to collect and distribute feedback about the separate performance of large work groups (as well as indices of the integrated functioning

* empathic + comprehension

of separate workunits). In addition, they need to develop public speaking skills and to understand and effectively use formal communication networks and information systems.

The profile of the communication dimension which now emerges reflects the following emphases:

ELEMENT / LEVEL	LOW	MIDDLE	TOP
INTERPERSONAL	Empathic listening skill Ability to deliver interpersonal feedback Ability to persuade based on expertise	Ability to listen empathically and for comprehension Ability to develop trust	Ability to establish credibility— Listening for comprehension skill
ORGANIZATIONAL	Ability to understand organizational policies and procedures and to interpret them for subordinates	Ability to translate organizational processes into understandable procedures	Ability to deliver organizational feedback

FIGURE 4

Communication Behavior in Terms of Three Levels

A more detailed accounting of the Communication Dimension is depicted in Figure 5.

LEVEL: / ELEMENTS:	FIRST-LINE LOW	MIDDLE	TOP	EXECUTIVE
A. Interpersonal Techniques and Focus B. Organizational Techniques and Focus	– Applies interpersonal skills – Responds to non-verbal cues – Provides interpersonal and performance feedback – Develops persuasion skills – Listens empathically – Employs horizontal communication channels – Disseminates information – Reads technical reports – Provides daily production information	– Applies writing skills – Employs organizational feedback techniques – Develops persuasion skills – Listens for comprehension – Develops informal communication channels – Routes information – Systematizes information – Writes reports – Interviews prospective employees – Briefs supervisors	– Communicates verbally and in writing – Provides and receives feedback about production goals – Facilitates organizational communication – Establishes information networks – Filters reports and data to executive level – Attends meetings	– Communicates verbally – Relies on organizational channels – Communicates extra-organizationally (with government officials, national pressure groups, client or customer organizations) – Examine reports – Meets visitors – Attends conferences – Represents the organization's viewpoint to the public

Figure 5 Communication Dimension

HUMAN RELATIONS

Background

Improvement in human relations became a management concern in the 1950's. A need for improvement was indicated because the authoritarian leadership style and desire for tight management control--outgrowths of scientific management principles--failed to overcome inadequate productivity and employee apathy. Simultaneously, results from the famous Western Electric Hawthorne experiments (Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1946) highlighted the fact that productivity and human relations were interdependent variables.

The finding that productivity and human relations are correlated compelled management to recognize that it should deal with people as more than mere tools of production. As a result, communications training was instituted as one means to handle the growing concern for the human dimension of production. Significant efforts were implemented to inform and to motivate subordinates. The underlying assumption was that people could be handled in the same manner as other organizational concerns (e.g., marketing, production, engineering). Human relations focused on morale problems, conflict resolution, the identification of employee needs, and other issues impacting on the human factor of productivity. The human resources development movement, which burgeoned in the 1970's, provides testimony of recent organizational concern for the human element.

Several social changes have arisen from the human relations movement. For one, managers and leaders today report that subordinates do not readily accept the idea of close supervision; consequently, direct orders given by fiat are less tolerated. Also, there is a growing trend toward the expression of individual freedom and initiative; this trend has seen fruition in policy changes in business institutions, school systems, community programs, and even in those attitudes which are promulgated in American homes. Such social changes have created new expectations among employees as to how they should be treated. In turn, individual attitudes are affected since they are dependent upon how actual experiences meet expectations. For example, if experiences fall short of expectations, unfavorable attitudes tend to result. Coupled with demands for greater individual freedom is an increasing concern with the quality of life; that is, with the growth of individuals into healthy well-adjusted adults. In a 1972 survey of values and beliefs pertaining to Army management techniques (Armstrong, et. al., 1972), Army managers overwhelmingly called for more organizational appreciation of the dignity and value of subordinates, for less close supervision, for decreased use of the threat of punishment as a motivational technique--in short, for substantially more consideration on the part of managers for subordinates' personal needs.

The impact of the social and attitudinal changes which have taken place is manifested in management's assumptions about ways to manage people. Therefore, the sociology of business (i.e., interest in the interactions of workers) has become an important managerial topic. To facilitate interaction, communication channels and networks are often studied. A review of the literature has shown that it is impossible to improve human relations without improving communication. The opposite effect, however, is not necessarily true.

Description

Human relations competence focuses on the individual. Skill in human relations facilitates the integration of individual member needs with organizational objectives. Such skills allow one to deal with other people effectively. Competency in human relations is founded on an understanding of general principles of human behavior, particularly those principles which involve the regulation of interpersonal relations and human motivation. The individual with human relations ability can skillfully utilize behavioral principles in day-to-day interactions.

Because the manager continually interfaces with subordinates, superiors, peers, staff specialists, and countless others, he must understand both his own behavior as well as the behavior of others. He must realize how values, attitudes, and beliefs affect behavior and learning, and he must know how individuals' needs and aspirations influence the investment of their energies.

A review of the literature on leadership and management underscores the importance of managerial concern for the success and well-being of subordinates. Likert (1961b), for one, found that supervisors who took the time to train subordinates for better jobs achieved levels of performance higher than those achieved by supervisors who did not train their subordinates. Similarly, Daniel Katz, et.al., (1951) found that supervisory concern for the personal problems of subordinates was also associated with high performance.

In addition to expressing support for others and concern with their problems, human relations skills also involve the supervisor's ability to motivate his subordinates and to integrate their individual needs with the needs of the organization. The successful application of motivation techniques first requires an identification of desirable outcomes (needs); once needs are identified, they can be related in a meaningful and rewarding manner to organizational goals. At times, this will involve coordinating the objectives of a subordinate with the objectives and expectations of his superiors. At other times, either or both individual and organizational goals will have to be modified to attain a realistic congruence. Pelz (1952) found that goal

integration was enhanced when a subordinate perceived his supervisor as having at least a modicum of upward influence. In one large corporation surveyed by the authors in this study, employees were encouraged to seek transfers to other jobs within the company itself, or to other companies. In many cases, this policy contributed to organizational upheaval, yet continued to be strongly supported by top management. Basically, human relations skills involve the ability to manage the emotional and motivational dimensions of interpersonal relations in an organization.

Several authors cite human relations skills as an inexpendable managerial ability. In a study of four managerial levels in an insurancy company, Alpander (1974) reported that the two most overlooked management functions were the training of subordinates and their orientation to new tasks, two areas which express a manager's concern for the individual.

Drucker (1974) identified social skill as a necessary managerial ability. Social skill, he said, is augmented by familiarity with motivation and communication principles. Like Drucker, Livingston (1971) cited the capacity to express empathy (so as to cope with others' emotional reactions) as especially relevant to effective managerial functioning.

Mintzburg (1975), in discussing the manager's job as a composite of ten roles, referred to human relations skill as part of the "leader role" profile. The "leader role" involves responsibility for the work of subordinates; specifically, staff hiring and training, and employee motivation and support to harmonize individual needs with organizational goals. Mackenzie (1969) explored a similar leader profile; he interpreted human relations skill in terms of the following four activities:

1) Motivating--persuading and inspiring people to take desired action.

2) Developing--helping to enhance workers' knowledge, attitudes, and skills.

3) Coordinating--relating efforts to form the most effective combination.

4) Orienting--familiarizing new employees with the situation in which they are expected to operate.

Human relations skills are also implied throughout the military literature on leadership. For example, three of the eleven Army principles of leadership (See Army Field Manual 22-100) refer to human relations competency:

a) "Know yourself and seek self-improvement."

b) "Know your men and look out for their welfare."

c) "Train your men as a team."

Field Manual 22-100, "Military Leadership," (1973) lists an understanding of behavior and attitudes, and a knowledge of contemporary human problems as especially relevant to leadership effectiveness. Two research efforts undertaken by the military and focusing specifically on leadership, the "CONARC Leadership Board Report" (1971) and the Army War College study on "Leadership for the 1970's," (1971) also underscored the necessity for human relations training. Both studies indicated the need for increased emphasis on human relations training at lower organizational levels (survey results showed too little instruction at the lower levels regarding the fundamentals of human behavior and motivation).

Training in Human Relations Skills

There are several instructional techniques which can be used appropriately to address human relations skill development. In a classroom situation, the analysis of case studies and impromptu role-playing exercises, both with follow-up critiquing by a qualified instructor-trainer, are methods to develop this skill. Value clarification exercises aimed at clarifying an individual's attitudes about himself and others, and continual on-the-job evaluations by superiors of an individual's human relations skill are additional ways to develop human relations ability.

Ideally, training in human relations should be done in close relation to the actual work environment. Research (See Fleishman, Harris, and Burtt, 1955) shows that training conducted in isolation from the actual work setting is ineffective and, in fact, extinguished if the results of training are not rewarded in the work environment. This suggests that elements of the work setting must be taken into consideration if any human relations training is to be effective. For this reason, it tends to be counterproductive to extract individuals from their work setting, expose them to human relations areas, raise their consciousness and perhaps their expectations, and then return them to their job without simultaneously assuring a supportive work climate.

Human relations skills impact most directly on the organizational climate and consequently help to set the "tone" of work relations. It must be recognized, however, that if change is desired, it must occur at the top organizational levels. To identify an organizational problem as human relations-oriented, and then to try to resolve it by

suggesting that middle management needs additional human relations training, will not rectify the problem.

Human relations skill must become natural; that is, a continuous activity, subconsciously demonstrated in every action of the individual and, therefore, assimilated as an integral aspect of the individual's personality. This ability has to be independently developed by the individual so as to ensure the true sincerity that is necessary to effectively display the skill.

Human Relations Skills as Differentiated by Organizational Level

Several authors contend that the importance of human relations skills varies by organizational level. Robert Katz (1955) identified the necessity for human skill at all organizational levels, especially at the first-line supervisory level. Katz described human skill as the ability to work effectively as a group member and to build cooperative team efforts. Such skill involves an awareness of one's own attitudes, assumptions, and beliefs about other individuals and groups, as well as an understanding of others' words and behaviors. The individual who applies this skill, according to Katz, works to create an atmosphere which is supportive and which encourages subordinates to express themselves and to participate in planning and decision-making activities. The manager with human relations ability is appropriately sensitive to the needs and motivation of others. Since the foreman's chief duty is to maximize the collaborative efforts of his work group, human skill is essential to him, particularly since he is in such frequent and direct contact with his subordinates.

Like Katz, Floyd Mann (1965) also asserted that the particular emphasis on human relations skill differs according to organizational level. He agreed that human relations ability is a requisite at every level but that it progressively diminishes in importance at higher levels. Mann and Hoffman (1960) also found that the need for human relations skill varied by life cycle as well as by level: late in the life of an organization and during periods of prolonged stability, human relations skills are especially important. But such skills are also indicated for lower-level supervisors during periods of change because of the need to allay subordinates' fears regarding the change.

Supervisors at the lower level are preoccupied with administrative procedures, and the utilization of existing organizational devices and established rules. One of their chief functions is to coordinate the work efforts of subordinates, a task which requires them to produce team work. As a result, foremen and low-level supervisors need some familiarity with participative management techniques. They also need to be able to discuss subordinates' problems and to defend the behavior

of subordinates in front of others. Additionally, leaders at this level must be able to interpret the decisions of supervisors to fit their work group, relate the goals of the organization to those of the work group, and equitably apply rewards and punishments. Lower-level managers generally are most concerned with motivating their subordinates and with establishing congruency between individual and organizational needs and expectations. With the high degree of interaction between lower-level supervisors and subordinates at this echelon, human relations skills become extremely important.

Middle managers are required to assume a dual role: they must understand both how their superiors are likely to act and how their subordinates are motivated (D. Katz and R. Kahn, 1966). To carry out this dual role, leaders and managers must adopt an affective orientation--the ability to integrate primary and secondary relationships; in other wards, human relations skills. Robert Katz (1974) proposed that middle managers (as well as lower-level supervisors) need "intragroup" human skill, or the ability to deal effectively with individuals within a work group. On the other hand, "intergroup" human skill, the ability to work with several groups, becomes more important at higher managerial levels. Lundberg (1972) also focused on the need for human relations competency at the middle levels. He identified such competency as a feeling activity, an attitudinal dimension which deals with "beliefs, predispositions, feelings, desires, or values which are held by individuals primarily because they are compatible with, or, in fact, part of the emotional makeup of the individual" (p. 13).

In a series of interviews with corporate chief executives, Reese (1975) found that executives identified the ability to interrelate with others as a fundamental skill. By the time the manager has reached senior management levels, he is expected to have integrated human relations competency into his style of relating to people. Human relations skills therefore should require less emphasis at the senior levels. In fact, R. Katz (1974) stressed that sensitivity to human relationships (human skill) is subsumed at top management levels by the requirement to combine varying group interests and activities into an integrated whole. For this reason, executives may lack technical or human skills and still be effective if they are surrounded by subordinates who have proficiency in these skill areas. Nevertheless, some human relations skills are manifested in the public posture assumed by top management. Executives must still be able to get along with others because of the extent of their contact with outside groups (e.g., constituents, clients, consultants, government personnel, etc.).

The development of human relations skill is manifested behaviorally. For instance, it is not appropriate to hold grudges, to resort to subversive techniques, to disparage or insult peers; instead, executives

are expected to maintain a demeanor of friendly respect, especially vis-à-vis their adversaries. Top-level managers refine what R. Katz (1974) referred to as "intergroup" human skills.

Figure 6 details the Human Relations dimension.

COUNSELING

Background

While counseling elements are part of any leadership role, in an industrial setting they are usually considered an aspect of either the human relations function or the supervison function. In a military setting, however, counseling deserves added emphasis because the military concerns itself with the entire scope of a soldier's well-being as opposed to simply providing a work place. The military is a way of life and, as such, is responsible for providing many of the social service systems traditionally found in the community.

Among the detailed findings of a 1971 Army leadership study (CONARC Leadership Board) was the necessity for the Army to develop a counseling manual for field use, designed to help leaders readily recognize various vocal and nonvocal "cries for help." Several personal counseling areas were pointed out as particularly relevant to the overall leadership process: knowledge of contemporary human problems, race relations, and alcohol and drug abuse.

A need common to both military and nonmilitary organizations is the necessity for performance counseling. In terms of mission accomplishment and job satisfaction, by far the most important type of counseling deals with day-to-day performance on the job. Performance counseling is as essential for the successful, experienced individual who is doing well on the job as for the inexperienced soldier who is doing poorly. The U.S. Army War College study, "Leadership for the 1970's," (1971) highlighted a need for improved performance counseling:

> Within the Army's existing leadership climate, counseling is viewed largely in two respects: as advice for career progression and assignments; or as a corrective, quasipunitive research taken by a leader when a subordinate has done something wrong. These views are, respectively, incomplete and incorrect. (p. 59)

LEVEL: / ELEMENTS:	FIRST-LINE	LOW	MIDDLE	TOP	EXECUTIVE
A. Inter-group Relations B. Intra-group Relations	– Formulates relations within a small work group – Keeps subordinates informed – Applies rewards equitably – Gives credit where due – Responds to personal needs and problems – Evaluates immediate personal needs	– Plans work group interrelations – Comprehends the general principles of human behavior – Empathizes and copes with others' emotional reactions – Shows interest in subordinates' welfare – Is sensitive to union relations – Diagnoses how superiors are likely to act and how subordinates are motivated	– Plans relations between and among groups – Works to create a supportive work atmosphere – Applies facilitative skills – Integrates individual needs with organizational needs – Respects the dignity of subordinates	– Formulates inter-group and extra-group relations – Creates a supportive climate within the organization	– Develops extra-organizational interface

Figure 6 Human Relations Dimension

Description

The above discussion suggests that the counseling dimension has two foci: to help an individual cope with personal problems and to improve work performance. Personal counseling assists individuals in developing and implementing an action plan enabling them to better handle problem areas. The interview is the vehicle generally used in the counseling situation to secure information about an individual's problem. In contrast, performance counseling involves an objective information-giving exercise designed to convey to the individual the nature of his functioning on the job. Both types of counseling require a basic knowledge about human behavior.

It is important to remember that the leader, in carrying out a personal counseling function, attempts to help the soldier or employee achieve a specific goal (cope with the problem). The goal is defined by the individual and not the leader. The leader should refrain from making decisions or giving advice. The problem belongs to the individual, and if the counseling process is handled skillfully, the coping strategy will be owned by the subordinate.

It is crucial for the leader to refer a subordinate to an appropriate agency when the individual's problem is beyond the leader's competency. Because a typical leader rarely has the clinical training required to handle subordinates' serious personal problems, it is especially important for him to know what referral resources are available. Leaders who attempt to handle personal counseling situations which are severe, complicated and long-range are overextending their purview.

The leader, in his personal counseling function, should adopt a "problem-solving" rather than a "tell-and-sell" approach. A problem-solving approach allows both the leader and soldier to mutually identify the problem and places primary responsibility for coping upon the soldier; the leader's role is primarily that of an advisor. By contrast, a "tell-and-sell" approach is one in which the leader identifies the problem, makes a diagnosis, and informs the soldier of the best course of action to resolve the problem. In this regard, the leader very inappropriately assumes the role of sage expert (Redding, 1971).

The second focus of a leader's counseling role is on performance counseling. As a counselor of work performance, the leader emphasizes job criteria, clarifies job expectations, and focuses on behavior as it relates to work performance. Performance counseling is an exercise in which the leader makes observations about the subordinate's performance on the job.

In addition to pointing out performance deficiencies, a leader should stress an individual's strengths. The subordinate desires to learn about the good and bad aspects of his work-related behavior in relation to the leader's expectations of his work performance. For this reason, it is important for the leader to reflect a positive attitude toward performance counseling (Redding, 1971). Performance improvement is enhanced when a subordinate desires to better himself and not when he remains chagrined over his shortcomings.

The above discussion leads to the importance of the work climate as a variable of performance counseling. A climate which promotes the idea that the objective of performance counseling is both improved individual effectiveness and greater organizational effectiveness is a positive climate. A climate which suggests to the subordinate that there is no room for deficiency--that all work must always be "up-to-par"--creates an environment in which individuals care more about not doing poorly than about doing well. While the work climate impacts upon a leader's ability to do performance counseling, good performance counseling in turn impacts upon the climate.

Counseling as Defined by Organizational Level

Performance shortfalls in the U.S. Army War College Study, "Leadership for the 1970's," (1971) indicate a need to differentiate the counseling dimension by organizational level. This information, coupled with data gathered by the authors in a survey of selected U.S. corporations, suggests that personal counseling is predominantly a requirement of leaders at the lower organizational levels. In most cases, first-line supervisors lack the expertise and cannot be trained easily or in a cost-effective manner to engage in extensive personal counseling. Therefore, their responsibility is to refer employees with problems to appropriate individuals and agencies who have the expertise. The main counseling requirement for leaders at lower levels is performance counseling. Accordingly, they must develop proficiency in the processes and techniques inherent in performance counseling. Such training and expertise serves as a basic foundation for continued performance counseling at higher organizational levels.

Leaders from the low to mid-levels find that their counseling focus changes. Since the majority of their counseling effort is directed toward evaluating individual and group performance, leaders at this level are concerned with both personal counseling and performance counseling. In the area of personal counseling, mid-level leaders have to be aware of demands on employees' personal behavior. Because individuals are forced to operate under increasingly more stringent behavioral demands the higher their level, leaders must be cognizant of the deleterious impact of inappropriate personal conduct on work

performance and organizational reputation. Consequently, leaders at middle echleons have to be able to identify personal problems, to engage in modified counseling, and to refer problems to more qualified individuals. The leader's increasing involvement in personal counseling arises because he is in a position to identify subordinates who have the potential to rise higher in the organization; and the higher an individual's position, the more closely scrutinized is his personal behavior. In the area of performance counseling, leaders are concerned with aligning the personal goals of subordinates with organizational objectives. Thus, they require a working knowledge of performance appraisal systems, in addition to goal-setting techniques. For instance, they might incorporate a "management-by-objectives" approach into their performance counseling; or they may need to be familiar with the assessment center process.

At the top organizational levels, leaders do not engage in extensive counseling of either type. Performance counseling is not as necessary at higher levels because top-level leaders have already established a great degree of commitment to the organization. Top-level employees usually are quite aware of their work expectations, having been socialized from a long period of experience in the organization. Thus, what little counseling is needed at the senior levels may be personal counseling, given the importance of role modeling at this level. Executives and high-level leaders are highly visible organizational representatives; because of this, the effect of personal problems interfering with their professional conduct can be severe.

The main counseling responsibility of top-level leaders is to establish a climate in which leaders at all levels can perform their counseling function. Leaders at the highest organizational levels control the organizational climate; thus, they can do much to promote or diminish the importance of counseling as a requirement of the leadership role. As a specific example, the counseling function is enhanced when space is provided which affords the necessary privacy to conduct counseling sessions. In addition, leaders at the top levels can facilitate counseling by establishing, maintaining, or identifying appropriate referral agencies and programs (e.g., race relations training, personal counseling centers; drug and alcohol abuse programs). Collocating these agencies makes it easier for an individual to avail himself of their services. High-level support of such programs allows lower-level leaders to carry out their counseling efforts and recognizes that employee problems are reflections of the general society.

Figure 7 reflects the breakdown of the Counseling Dimension by organizational level.

LEVEL: / ELEMENTS:	FIRST-LINE	LOW	MIDDLE	TOP	EXECUTIVE
A. Personal Counseling B. Performance Counseling	– Identifies employees with personal problems – Refers subordinates to appropriate personnel or agency – Employs open-ended questioning – Evaluates work performance against job criteria	– Refers problems as appropriate – Assists individuals to develop and implement action plans for resolution of manageable problem areas – Selects appropriate interviewing techniques Is conscious of eye contact, body position – Synthesizes feedback content – Identifies performance criteria – Provides performance feedback – Suggests plans for performance feedback	– Establishes yardsticks to evaluate individual and group performance – Provides and receives unit performance feedback – Identifies performance feedback – Devises and enacts performance improvement plans – Recommends employees for dismissal or separation – Conducts exit interviews	– Identifies colleagues who have personal problems which might adversely affect their professional performance and the organization's well-being	– Counsels one-on-one with colleagues who have problems

Figure 7 Counseling Dimension

SUPERVISION

Background

Because organizations are created and exist for an explicit purpose, leaders and managers are expected to orchestrate the activities of subordinates and work groups to meet organizational objectives. This requirement brings into focus that set of tasks comprising supervision, a dimension which has been central to leadership and management research.

Several authors have referred specifically to supervision. In a study of behaviorally-based tasks crucial to the leader's job, Flanagan (1951) identified supervision of personnel as a particularly important leadership factor. Supervisory behavior was also the concern of both the Ohio State and Michigan researchers. Hemphill (1960) listed supervision of work as one of ten elements that comprise executive positions. Mackenzie (1969) elaborated upon five management functions; two of these, directing and controlling, deal with supervision. The military leadership principle of understanding tasks and supervising work to accomplish them also refers to the supervision dimension.

Until recently, the literature on management and leadership did not make marked differentiations between supervisory, managerial, administrative, and leadership activities. Henri Fayol's (1916) listing of five basic managerial functions, expounded upon by Chester Barnard (1938) as "bases of specialization," provides the content areas which many assume comprise the supervisory function. Therefore, the layman generally has come to identify supervision as the totality of planning, organizing, directing (commanding), coordinating, and controlling.

The early leadership literature considered supervisory activity as encompassing two basic supervisory orientations. Ohio State researchers examined "initiating structure" and "consideration" behaviors (Hemphill, 1950; Hemphill and Coons, 1957; Fleishman, 1953c); or "production emphasis" and "sensitivity" (Halpin and Winer, 1957; Halpin and Croft, 1962). The focus was on the impact of leader behavior (defined in terms of style orientations) on follower behavior. Researchers at the University of Michigan also considered supervisory activity; however, they explored those factors in small work groups which were conducive to both high productivity levels and high levels of group member satisfaction. Like the Ohio State team, they examined leader behavior and style orientations: Katz and Kahn (1952) identified "employee orientation" and "production orientations"; Cartwright and Zander (1960) described "group maintenance functions" and "goal

achievement functions"; Likert (1961a) expounded upon the "principle of supportive relations" and "high performance goals"; and Bowers and Seashore (1966) suggested that "support"/"interaction facilitation" and "goal emphasis"/"work facilitation" were the primary elements of leader behavior.

The early studies focusing on supervison basically considered "effective supervision" as a function of two skills: 1) the ability to conduct successful interpersonal relations which account for the feelings and needs of subordinates; and 2) the ability to direct the group toward the accomplishment of its goals, suggesting also a differentiation between leader and follower roles. The literature suggests, however, that supervision is more than just a function of task-related and people-related skills. A more helpful way to examine this dimension is to consider it as comprised of elements, similar to what Hemphill (1960) did when he examined executive-level functioning.

Description

Supervision, as described here, is predominately a lower-level activity which characterizes the managerial role of first-and second-line supervisors (Hemphill, 1960; Haas, Porat, and Vaughn, 1969). Its primary focus is on the efficient accomplishment of work. Because a first-level supervisor's activities entail a great deal of direct contact with both workers and machines, he must understand and appreciate four component elements: 1) the efficient use of equipment; 2) the effectiveness of operational procedures; 3) ways to motivate his subordinates; and 4) the need to maintain the cohesion of his work group.

The low-level supervisory role is a difficult one to undertake because it serves as a conduit between workers and management. Mann (1965) likened the role to Likert's "linking pin" concept (Likert, 1961b): he saw the supervisory role as one allowing the entire organizational system to maintain cohesion by linking together different organizational subsystems. Thus, one finds that the supervisor has to integrate multiple concerns: 1) he is preoccupied with directing and coordinating the activities of his subordinates; 2) he must relate these activities to those of other work groups at the same organizational level; and 3) he has to integrate the work of his group with the work of other groups at the next organizational level.

The literature reports that supervisors spend the majority of their time in their own sections (Burns, 1954; Dubin and Spray, 1964; R. Katz, 1955, 1974). Since they spend approximately two-thirds of their time in work which is related to technical operations, they find themselves preoccupied with the need to inspect, advise, "trouble-

shoot," and train. In addition to these tasks, the supervisor finds that he must be able to plan--specifically, to set priorities (i.e., to determine what job comes next), to organize activity and time, and to schedule (Pfiffner and Sherwood, 1960).

Perhaps the most important responsibility involved in supervision is to ascertain whether or not work group goals are being accomplished. This calls for the ability to measure work in terms of expected standards, as well as skill at interpreting and mitigating organizational demands which are imposed upon the work unit. In coordinating the work of his group, the supervisor assigns personnel to specific tasks and watches hour-to-hour results (Pfiffner and Sherwood, 1960).

The responsibility to evaluate work output implies inspection skills. In order to successfully inspect work the supervisor must first understand the set of tasks which comprise work objectives. Inspecting skill involves the ability to assess product quality and and to apply quality control to production effort; knowledge of proper maintenance techniques relevant to equipment; and an understanding of procedural checks which facilitate safety inspections (Hemphill, 1960).

The supervisory function goes beyond coordinating, directing, and planning activities, however. Supervision additionally involves the responsibility to coordinate individual member needs and goals with organizational objectives--precisely because a degree of congruence between members' goals and organizational goals is essential for organizational productivity and well-being. This means that the supervisor must be able to reconcile, coordinate, and integrate individual member needs and goals with those of the organization. Implied in this ability is an awareness that subordinates at different levels vary in their degree of organizational commitment, as well as in their reasons for working. Thus, supervisors and managers must understand what motivates their subordinates.

The literature (Herzberg, et.al., 1959; Maslow, 1954; Mahoney, 1964; Porter, 1962, 1963) points out that lower-level employees are predominantly motivated by extrinsic factors. Therefore, supervisors should be concerned with the equitable use of tangible rewards and penalties in a clear, consistent, and fair manner (Katz and Kahn, 1966; R. Katz, 1955; Mann, 1965). However, individuals at higher levels respond more to intrinsic motivators (Mann, 1965). Consequently, middle- and top-level managers need to be aware of this fact so that they can apply corresponding motivation principles and techniques.

The above discussion suggests that managerial training programs should consider the distinctions in motivation and structure their

curricula accordingly. What this means, for instance, is that it is unrealistic to educate first-line foremen in the details of intrinsic motivators because they will find themselves in situations where the application of extrinsic motivation theory is more appropriate. Above all, supervisors possessing the ability to motivate must recognize that an employee is an individual and not solely an instrument of production (Katz and Kahn, 1966).

Supervision According to Level

The first-line supervisor is constantly challenged to establish harmony between his subordinates' needs and organizational requirements. In attempting to interrelate individual energies into organizational structures and demands, the foreman faces a difficult predicament in that he is called upon to understand and interpret policy for his subordinates--policy into which he has had little input. To effectively perform this task, he is required to have a working knowledge of the organization and its problems, as well as an understanding of those problems particular to his subordinates. Supervisors are mainly preoccupied with utilizing and enforcing established organizational rules. They rarely find themselves in a position to operate directly on the environment and thus are handicapped in establishing a climate in which their subordinates' motivation is enhanced. Yet this predicament diminishes as the supervisor moves into higher managerial positions--precisely because of opportunities for more direct involvement in policy-making activities at higher levels. Nevertheless, Mann (1965) asserted that supervisors have to draw upon "a very high order of creative and imaginative problem solving" (p. 72) in carrying out their duties.

Although supervisory activities are predominant at the lower levels, there are elements of supervision which apply at every level. A leader's focus shifts from the individual to the group as he progresses upward in the organization. At the middle levels, supervision involves many of those activities incorporated in the Management Science Dimension. The higher a leader's position, the more he is preoccupied with activities which are aimed at coordinating each subunit's objectives with the overall organizational purpose. At the top level, supervision involves planning, programming, organizing the work, assigning the right tasks to the right people, delegating appropriate amounts of responsibility and authority, evaluating and following up on work, and coordinating the efforts and activities of different organizational members, departments and levels.

Top-level managers face virtually no motivation problems in establishing an affinity between their immediate subordinates and

the organization, for there exists a greater degree of organizational commitment at these levels. At the corporate level the predicament is "to boss" without seeming to boss, and to study productivity without intending to intercede directly in problem areas (Pffifner and Sherwood, 1960).

To summarize those activities in which the supervisor is engaged, one finds that--in addition to advising, training, and inspecting--he explains, reports feedback to his supervisors, takes immediate corrective action when it is warranted, sets goals, and generally directs the varied activity of individual members to produce a unified effort toward the achievement of specified goals. The lower-level manager gives direct orders; the mid-level manager reviews production results; the top-level manager evaluates program objectives. Therefore, managers not only have to relinquish direct responsibility as they move upward, but they also have to learn to operate in a different manner (Katz and Kahn, 1966).

Figure 8 details how supervisory activities vary by organizational level.

TECHNICAL

Background

The previous discussion suggests that low-level supervisors require a proficiency in technical operations and procedures. Researchers for some time have emphasized how important technical skills are to managerial success. Flanagan (1951), R. E. Williams (1956), Mahoney (1961), Likert (1961b), and others attested to the fact that the effective manager or leader is one who can handle the technical problems faced by his group, or who is able to draw upon resources which will provide the needed technical expertise to accomplish his work goals.

Description

Technical proficiency focuses on tasks instead of people and is primarily concerned with physical objects. Robert Katz (1955) defined technical skill as an "understanding of, and proficiency in, a specific kind of activity, particularly involving methods, processes, procedures, or techniques" (p. 34). Floyd Mann (1965) expanded the above definition by suggesting that technical competency involves, in addition to the ability to use tools and techniques, specialized knowledge and analytical ability. Technical abilities range from discrete motor skills, through the ability to perform operations, to an appreciation

LEVEL: / ELEMENTS:	FIRST-LINE	LOW	MIDDLE	TOP	EXECUTIVE
A. Procedures 1. Organizing 2. Directing 3. Inspecting 4. Advising and Explaining 5. Maintaining 6. Troubleshooting 7. Motivating B. Techniques	— Enforces organizational rules — Treats subordinates fairly and consistently — Coordinates with peers — Organizes use of equipment — Develops work-force cohesion — Assigns persons to tasks — Administers on-the-spot corrective action — Maintains personal contact with subordinates — Performs safety inspections — Orients new people	— Differentiates hour-to-hour results — Administers rewards and punishes appropriately — Formulates efficient procedures — Compares work group activities to those of other groups — Defines supervisory responsibilities — Corrects undesirable behavior of subordinates — Orients and trains new people — Advises about production data	— Performs quality control tasks — Focuses on efficiency of operations — Performs "linking pin" function — Creates position descriptions — Establishes procedural checks — Selects qualified people — Reviews production results	— Evaluates programs and objectives — Reinforces the motivational climate — Coordinates sub-unit objectives — Utilizes consultants — Determines promotability — Establishes organizational structure	— Maintains total organizational perspective — Develops an effective motivational climate — Delegates responsibility — Focuses on executive development programs

Figure 8 Supervision Dimension

of the professional-technical role. These skills are acquired through formalized, theoretically-based training programs in professional or trade schools, informal on-the-job training, and a combination of academic and coaching programs which incorporate practice under supervision. Like the other skill areas, technical ability is differentiated by organizational level.

Technical Skill According to Level

The literature suggests that the degree of technical skill essential to successful leadership or managerial performance is greatest at the lower managerial levels. R. Katz (1955), Argyris (1964), D. Katz and Kahn (1966), Mann (1965), Mahler and Wrightnour (1973), Alpander (1974), and military studies stressed that technical skill must be established at the lower levels. As Mann and Dent pointed out in a 1954 study of eight accounting departments, first-line supervisors who lacked technical knowledge and expertise were not promoted. Katz and Kahn (1966) reported that technical skill is that vehicle which allows low-level supervisors to utilize the formal organizational structure (i.e., existing devices and established rules). Mahler and Wrightnour (1973) pointed out that mastery of task-related skills must be achieved by the time a manager reaches "Crossroad 1" in his career--or age thirty. The most critical of the eleven military principles of leadership is tactical ability. Coincidentally, it is also that skill area which the 1971 U. S. Army War College study on leadership reported as being the most amenable to training. Stogdill (1974) reported technical skill as the most frequently mentioned leadership factor in his review of 52 post-World War II studies. Because it is the foreman's duty to provide technical supervision, the most important skill he needs to acquire and display is technical proficiency.

At the middle levels, technical skill is less important. The higher the managerial level, the less involved is the manager in the physical operations of his work group. Should he need to draw upon technical knowledge, the middle manager can avail himself of the expertise of skilled subordinates and staff specialists. It is not suggested that mid-level managers can completely forego any technical interest. Instead, the presumption is that middle managers require knowledge of the tasks of the relevant subsystems and their inter-relatedness. Higher-level managers turn their focus away from technical details and procedures and toward developing and displaying skills which are more cognitive in nature. In other words, technical expertise shifts from a focus on procedures to a focus on operations and processes as one ascends the managerial hierarchy.

The nature of technical skill required becomes more complex once a manager reaches a middle-level position. Warren Bennis (1959)

clarified this complexity when he suggested the need to differentiate supervisory technical expertise into two elements: knowledge of performance criteria and knowledge of the human aspects of supervision. The second element refers to far more than just production details; it implies an appreciation of coordination and communication activities.

The distinction between the two elements also raises an important issue: as one shifts level, his skill requirements need to shift from technical proficiency and functional expertise to a more expansive expertise. Henry Kissinger (1959), writing as a Harvard political scientist, expressed the shift as follows:

> One of the paradoxes of an increasingly specialized, bureaucratized society is that the qualities required in the rise to eminence are less and less the qualities required once eminence is reached. Specialization encourages administrative and technical skills, which are not necessarily related to the vision and creativity needed for leadership. The essence of good administration is coordination among the specialized functions of a bureaucracy. The task of the executive is to infuse and occasionally to transcend routine with purpose. (p. 30)

What Kissinger is referring to, and what the authors wish to emphasize here, is that the shift in levels calls for a shift in perspective. It is crucial that this shift be reflected in an overall leadership training program. Therefore, the skills required at the middle levels change in content from those of a supervisory nature to skills involving processes and conceptual abilities--skills which will be discussed under the management science, decision making, and planning dimensions.

When the leader assumes an executive position at the top organizational levels, he finds that his need for explicit technical skill may be almost nonexistent (Katz, 1955). In 1974 Katz qualified this statement to say that technical skill is unimportant at top management levels only in very large companies where the chief executive can draw upon a capable and extensive staff structure composed of technically proficient personnel. This type of staff structure frees the executive to focus upon strategic issues. Technical skill is, however, useful to the top executive in a small company, since the lack of a technically expert resource staff may force the chief executive to become personally involved in business operations. Yet, it is not fair to completely discount the need

for technical skills. In order to ask the appropriate questions of his subordinates and to evaluate adequately their responses, the executive must have some familiarity with technical details, even though he may not have to apply his knowledge directly. As stated earlier, technical expertise has to be acquired early in an individual's managerial career and is best utilized at the supervisory levels.

Mann (1955) proposed that the need for technical skill also varied according to situation and organizational life cycle. Early in the life of an organization, when procedures and regulations must be established, technical proficiency achieves a high degree of importance. Such skill is also needed during periods of rapid change (such as during a reorganization) or transition (for example when a new technology is being introduced into the system).

Figure 9 depicts the Technical Dimension.

MANAGEMENT SCIENCE

Background

The development of those activities encompassed by the management science dimension occurred during World War II as a continuing refinement of scientific management techniques which sought to make management rigorous, scientific, and quantitative. The focus of such activities was upon quantitatively prescribing how organizational goals and activities should be carried out. As Drucker (1974) stated, the management science intended to "substitute certainty for guesswork, knowledge for judgment, 'hard facts' for experience" (p. 506). A primary approach adopted by those involved in this area was referred to as "operations research"--a research mode related to that methodology known as "systems analysis." Basically, it employs models drawn from mathematics, statistics, and economics, relating the independent variable of some organizational resource to the dependent variable of organizational effectiveness. During this same period, computer technology was also rapidly evolving; consequently, management science techniques were greatly assisted by advances in computer knowledge.

Description

The management science dimension encompasses what is traditionally considered the measurement or evaluation function of management activity. Generally, this dimension deals with techniques, mechanics, and tools rather than with either principles or the integrated performance of the organization as a whole. The bulk of activity subsumed under this dimension concerns itself with sharpening existing tools for specific technical functions. The management science dimension

LEVEL: / ELEMENTS:	FIRST-LINE	LOW	MIDDLE	TOP	EXECUTIVE
A. Specific Content Area B. Procedures, Techniques, Principles C. Focus on Motor Skills	– Selects procedures, techniques, methods related to a specific task or subject area – Utilizes equipment – Applies motor skills – Performs military occupational specialty	– Selects procedures, methods related to work unit activities – Interprets the professional technical role – Performs military occupational specialty	– Comprehends advanced technology (e.g., computers, data processing, management information systems) – Synthesizes procedures and processes which are subsumed in the management science dimension – Consults technical experts	– Relies on technical experts	– Relies on technical experts

Figure 9 Technical Dimension

can be described in terms of its focus on the following two elements: 1) procedures and 2) people. With regard to procedures, this dimension emphasizes the technical and routine application of various types of business controls, specifically those involved with cost accounting, the maintenance of proper inventories, the payment of salaries, maintenance scheduling, the preparation of budgets, quality control, goal setting, problem identification, time management, procedures analysis and the like. With regard to people, the management science dimension addresses performance appraisal systems, problem solving, negotiating, conflict resolution, directing, controlling, and executive development.

The literature on leadership and management reveals that the areas designated here as comprising management science have long been highlighted by researchers, although not defined explicitly as such. For example, Shartle and Stogdill (1955) identified negotiation, evaluation, and inspection as leadership activities. Similarly, Mintzberg (1975), in describing managerial activity in terms of roles, recognized a "disturbance-handler role" and a "negotiating role" as integral parts of a manager's job.

Other researchers refer to the procedural aspect of the management sciences. Speaking of the control function, Carlson (1951) emphasized inspecting and reviewing as ingredients of control. Wofford (1967) also referred to managerial control of the work group. He stated that the manager, in order to maintain control of his work unit, needs to concern himself with the following: establishing quantitative budget and performance standards; establishing formal reporting procedures for information and measurement; and emphasizing performance standards, their accomplishment, and evaluation.

Hemphill (1960), in an important analysis of managerial behavior, cited ten basic dimensions which apply to virtually all types of managerial jobs. Two of these ten dimensions pertain specifically to the management science area. Hemphill's third dimension, "Internal Business Control," deals with cost reduction, the maintenance of proper inventories, the preparation of budgets, the justification for capital expenditures, the definition of jobs, and wage and salary administration. A second dimension identified by Hemphill had to do with the provision of a staff service in non-operational areas. This managerial activity involves staff support in administrative procedures as well as service in the areas of personnel, law, and special projects. Specific support activities involve gathering information, interviewing, selecting and placing personnel, checking statements, and verifying facts.

In the largest study of its type, Stewart (1967) addressed how managers spend their time by asking "What do managers do?" After grouping managerial tasks into five classifications, she identified one class as "specialist managers" who work in relative isolation,

reading, writing, dictating and calculating--in other words, performing what relates to management science-based tasks.

The military literature on the subject similarly alludes to management science activities. For instance, Army Pamphlet 600-15, "Leadership at Senior Levels of Command," (1968) considers the factor of control as central to the leadership process. Within the military, the term "control" implies a working knowledge of regulations, procedures, and policies. Additionally, other studies stress the need for refined management science techniques. A review of Army management theory and practice which was undertaken in 1972 by a group of officers attending the Army Comptrollership School at Syracuse University, (Armstrong, et. al., 1972) concluded that Army managers required increased competency in several management skill areas, to include such management science techniques as MBO, management-by-exception, performance appraisal, and problem-solving techniques.

Management Sciences as Defined by Organizational Level

Management science activities are predominantly performed by middle managers, but may also be the purview of top-level managers in small organizations. Several studies attest to the importance of this dimension at the middle levels. Many studies drew conclusions from information derived from the Work Analysis Form, an important instrument devised by the Ohio State researchers to measure various aspects of administrative work. Haas, Porat, and Vaughn (1969) used the Work Analysis Forms to study three organizational levels. Their study revealed that negotiating was a primary activity of mid-level managers. Stewart (1967) reported that the majority of the specialist managers (e.g., the "backroom" specialist; the "head office" specialist) were middle managers, with the inclusion of a few top managers. Stewart described the specialist manager as one engaged in management science activities. In a study of four managerial levels, Alpander (1974) concluded that controlling and performance appraisals were mid-level concerns. He asserted that mid-level managers need developmental programs to sharpen their skills in these areas. Mahler and Wrightnour (1973) also pointed out the need for managerial training at certain career "crossroads." At the third crossroad (roughly comparable to a middle or upper-middle level) the individual needs to have an expertise in economics, planning, and management science.

The technological advancements which have occurred over the last twenty-five years have threatened to supplant the middle manager as the one responsible for the activities referred to above. In fact, it was once felt that the work of the middle manager could be taken over by the highly sophisticated management information systems and computers which were being developed. But both management information systems and computers have proven to be tools--useful if properly utilized--but tools nonetheless.

Skill Areas

If one considers the management science dimension as a composite of procedural techniques, he runs the hazard of getting bogged down in specific procedures. Therefore, it is helpful to break the management sciences dimension into six skill-related areas which accommodate the various techniques which are outgrowths of this type of activity. The following six elements provide a framework within which to incorporate procedures and techniques:

1. Controlling

2. Organizing

3. Development (Staffing)

4. Evaluation

5. Problem-solving

6. Setting Objectives

Mackenzie (1969) has described three of the six skill areas: controlling, organizing, and staffing. Controlling deals with the act of measuring results against the plan, rewarding performance, and replanning work so as to correct problems. More specifically, it involves the following:

1. Establishing a reporting system--determining what critical data are needed, how to obtain them and when.

2. Developing performance standards--setting conditions which will exist when key duties are performed well.

3. Measuring results--ascertaining the extent of deviation from goals and standards.

4. Taking corrective action--adjusting plans, counseling to attain standards, and replanning.

Organizing involves a determination of how to break work down into manageable units. Specifically, the following activities are involved:

1. Establishing an organizational structure, drawing up an organizational chart.

2. Delineating relationships--designing liaison lines which facilitate coordination.

3. Creating position descriptions--defining the scope of the

position, as well as its inherent relationships, responsibilities, and authority.

4. Establishing position qualifications--defining qualifications for position incumbents.

5. Managing differences--encouraging independent thought, resolving conflict.

6. Managing change--stimulating creativity and innovation in achieving goals.

Development pertains to the selection and training of people to do the work. It refers to the following activities:

1. Selecting--recruiting qualified people for each position.

2. Orienting--familiarizing new people with the situation in which they are expected to operate.

3. Training--making subordinates proficient through instruction and practice.

4. Developing--helping to enhance workers' knowledge, attitudes, and skills.

The remaining three elements are equally important and have been expanded upon considerably in the management literature: evaluating, problem solving, setting objectives. As an evaluator, the successful manager is able to measure and to establish yardsticks so as to evaluate individual and group performance. He analyzes, appraises, and interprets performance and communicates his findings. In this regard, the evaluation function deals primarily with performance appraisals; thus, the manager needs to understand performance expectations--to set and assess them. The many techniques in use today to evaluate and improve individual performance are too voluminous to mention in detail here. A central feature of all of them, however, is the absolute necessity to identify observable and measurable target behaviors.

Although problem solving is a cognitive process, it is facilitated to a great degree by procedural techniques. While it involves the ability to analyze problems--to gather facts, ascertain courses, and develop alternative solutions--it is enhanced by information systems which provide factual and informational input data. Like evaluation procedures, there are many problem-solving techniques in use today. Each technique emphasizes the need to identify the problem, develop an appropriate criterion (indicator of success) and generate and analyze alternative solutions.

The ability to set goals and objectives requires a clear understanding of job requirements. But, as Drucker (1974) emphasized, besides determining goals and objectives, the effective manager decides what is needed to achieve these objectives and communicates pertinent information to those whose assistance is necessary for goal accomplishment. A popular method to set objectives is a technique known as 'management-by-objectives" (MBO). MBO typically consists of five steps which are constantly repeated:

1. Set organizational or unit goals, establish priorities.

2. Specify sub-goals which are specific and measurable.

3. Set individual performance objectives in terms of acceptable performance standards and deadlines.

4. Specify an action plan of how to achieve the performance objectives.

5. Review performance--compare performance objectives with actual results.

6. Revise goals.

Further Considerations

The above discussion suggests that the management science dimension is a functional one contributing significantly to effective management. Drucker (1974), however, offered a caveat to relying solely upon the utilitarian aspect of this dimension. If one views an organization as a system of human beings who voluntarily contribute their skills, knowledge, abilities, and energy toward accomplishing a common goal, he can see that maximizing the efficiency of one part (e.g. management science) does not guarantee that the rest of the system will benefit. As Drucker emphasized:

> Throughout the management science--in the literature as well as in the work in progress--the emphasis is on techniques rather than on principles, on mechanics rather than on decisions, on tools rather than on results, and, above all, on efficiency of the part rather than on performance on the whole. (p. 509)

To maximize the functioning of one organizational part without considering how other parts are affected can create an imbalance which is dyfunctional to organizational effectiveness.

In promoting increased efficiency (which is indeed desirable), the new tools of management science are extremely powerful--so much so that they are dangerous since their wrong or careless use can do serious damage. Presently, in some large organizations, management science has lost sight of its emphasis. In such situations--and in terms of an analogy--the management science dimension has placed emphasis on the hammer instead of on driving in the nail, and often completely loses sight of the object under construction What has occurred is a gross misunderstanding of what "scientific" means. Scientific is not synonymous with quantification.

Management scientists are basically technical specialists. But managers can attain some of this expertise and apply it in their functioning if they appreciate that the value of management science techniques is to contribute available alternatives or choices between courses of action. They can gain this appreciation if they place their focus on understanding as opposed to formulae. In this regard, management science activities provide tools of analysis; they are means to an end and not ends in themselves. They are certainly not the panacea to ultimately optimize organizational functioning.

Figure 10 shows how the Management Science Dimension relates to organizational level.

DECISION MAKING

Background

Decision making has long been considered a primary managerial activity. Researchers have emphasized consistently how important decision-making ability is to effective leadership functioning. Decision making is one of three continuous managerial functions identified by MacKenzie (1969) as integral to the managerial process. Drucker (1974) referred to the importance of this dimension for setting objectives and organizing when he spoke of analyzing the activities, decisions, and relations required. Mintzburg (1975) considered the decisional role, (one of ten roles he identified as comprising the manager's job) as especially important to effective management. Because they are empowered with the formal authority to allocate resources, and because of the large amount of information to which they have access, managers inevitably are involved in decision-making systems.

Decision making also receives emphasis in military publications. As a process, it is generally developed as a function of "command" and not treated separately as a managerial or leadership activity. Nonetheless, some military publications cite decision making as a discrete leadership skill. Department of the Army Pamphlet 600-15, "Leadership

LEVEL: / ELEMENTS:	FIRST-LINE	LOW	MIDDLE	TOP	EXECUTIVE
A. Processes 1. Controlling 2. Organizing 3. Development (Staffing) 4. Evaluation 5. Problem-Solving 6. Setting Objectives B. Detailed Procedures	– Differentiates Hour-to-hour results – Evaluates immediate needs	– Resolves urgent and pending problems immediately	– Measures results against the plan – Identifies problems – Solves problems of immediate scope – Interprets and utilizes management information systems – Negotiates within the work group – Develops performance standards and appraises performance – Maintains proper inventories – Formulates wage and salary administration plans – Plans cost reductions – Produces a budget – Checks statements to verify facts – Establishes a reporting system – Organizes work group activities – Selects, orients, trains and develops subordinates – Sets goals and establishes priorities – Develops management techniques (e.g., MBO)	– Evaluates new ideas – Identifies potential problem areas – Resolves conflict – Formulates wage and salary administration plans – Reviews budget proposals – Deliberates – Develops performance appraisal systems – Manages time – Determines promotability – Develops management techniques – Sets long-term objectives	– Formulates and approves executive development programs

Figure 10 Management Science Dimension

at Senior Levels of Command," (1968) is one publication which specifies that formulating objectives and making operational decisions are responsibilities of senior-level leaders. Similarly, the "CONARC Leadership Board Report" (1971) and the Army War College Study on "Leadership for the 1970's" (1971) called for an increased emphasis on developing decision-making skills. A 1972 Army management study conducted by officers attending the Army Comptrollership school at Syracuse University (Armstrong, et.al., 1972) also stressed the importance of decision making.

Vroom and Yetton (1973) have approached leadership totally from the perspective of the decision-making process; they focused upon the extent to which the leader should share his decision-making power. Vroom and Yetton assumed that the one type of decision constantly faced by organizationally appointed leaders is the question of how much subordinate participation is required for an effective decision.

Description

Much of human behavior is but a reflection of the decisions people make. While this statement may be axiomatic, if one is to understand decision-making behavior in complex organizations, he needs to know the processes which underscore decisions and choices made. The decision-making process can be explained in terms of two elements: 1) the level of abstraction of the decision, and 2) the time perspective the decision encompasses. Each of these elements varies by organizational level. Decisions made by lower-level managers are basically concrete, pragmatic, and short-term, whereas those made at higher levels are more abstract, complicated, strategic, and long-term.

Katz and Kahn (1966) offer a further clarification by explaining decision making in terms of individual behavior and organizational behavior. Within the individual behavior framework, they described four stages inherent in the decision-making and problem-solving processes:

1. The perception by the decision maker of immediate pressure.
2. Analysis of the problem.
3. A search for alternative solutions.
4. Consideration of the impact of alternatives.

In addition, there are four variables which affect the four stages:

1. The nature of the problem.
2. The organizational context.

3. The personality of the decision maker.

4. The cognitive limitations of individuals which are attributable to situational and personality factors.

In addition to describing decision making in terms of individual behavior, as Katz and Kahn did, decision making can also be described in terms of organizational focus. Vroom and Yetton (1973) argued that the problem-solving and decision-making processes adopted by individuals are different from the processes adhered to by organizations. While both processes involve a cognitive aspect (intrapersonal behavior), organizational decision making also involves a social aspect (interpersonal behavior). Underlying the cognitive approach is the overriding fact that decision making is the responsibility of the leader. Alternatively, one can also view the leader's task as having to determine which style (e.g., exclusive decision making, participative decision making) and which individual(s) would be most appropriate for handling the problem. Within an organizational context, decision making usually is not an isolated activity performed by one individual, the leader; rather, it is a complex activity which involves far more than merely following a codified set of procedural steps.

Decision-making activity clearly involves the participation of others. According to Yukl (1971)--who added the decision centralization dimension to Stogdill's Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, Form XII--"the leader's success depends in part upon the extent to which he taps the knowledge of his subordinates by allowing them some degree of participation in making decisions" (p. 427). But, as Katz and Kahn (1966) observed, the notion of "participation has become something of a shibboleth in our society" (p. 381). Nevertheless, there appears to be substantial support in the literature for participative decision making. Vroom and Yetton (1973) concluded that participation by subordinates in decision making increases productivity under some circumstances. The 1972 report by officers attending the Army Comptrollership School (Armstrong, et.al., 1972) showed strong support by questionnaire respondents for both decentralized decision making and increased participation by subordinates in decisions.

What must be understood is that the concept of participative decision making refers to a generalized set of attitudes as opposed to any singular action or particular set of behaviors. As Lowin (1968) defined it, participative decision making is "a mode of organizational operations in which decisions as to activities are arrived at by the very persons who are to execute those decisions" (p. 69). An attitude which favors participation in decision situations flows from the top levels and creates a climate which is favorable to this style of decision making. Favorability to subordinates' participation in decisions means that top management is able to delegate decision-making responsibility, a necessary action in large organizations where

the sheer volume of decision information prohibits detailed processing.

One should not conclude from the above discussion that participative decision making is always the advisable approach. While some may argue that participation is more democratic and thus the preferrable approach, some situations require solitary decision making since quality decisions are dependent upon the expertise, information, and power held by high-level managers. Two criteria--what Maier (1963) called "dimensions of effective decisions"--appear fundamental to determining whether or not participation by subordinates is indicated: quality and acceptance.

The need for quality decisions raises the issue of safeguards against errors of individual judgment. Organizational decisions are made by individuals and thus subject to errors in judgment. One means to ensure sound decisions is to require and nurture conceptual ability in leaders and managers. Since decision making is an operation or process, as well as a procedure, conceptual ability is especially important to effective decision making. This is particularly true at the higher management levels where policy decisions are made. As R. Katz (1955, 1974) asserted, policy making is directly affected by a lack of conceptual ability in policy makers.

The ability to conceptualize allows the individual to see the enterprise as a whole. This competency implies that he consistenly considers the following abstractions:

1. The individual is able to weigh the "relative emphases and priorities among conflicting objectives and criteria."

2. He can ascertain relative tendencies and probabilities.

3. He can determine rough correlations and patterns among disparate elements. (R. Katz, 1974, p. 101)

Decision Making by Level

Decision making, as indicated previously, is different at different organizational levels. Martin (1956) viewed executive work as primarily involved in making decisions and reported that decision situations at lower levels are different from those at higher levels in terms of the following variables:

1. Time perspective (short versus long), and

2. Content (structured versus abstract).

Decisions at the lower levels are short-term and highly structured decisions. A foreman's main task is to see that day-to-day production

goals are achieved. Because he has relatively little organizational power, he cannot reformulate problems and thus his decision-making power is simultaneously limited. Low-level supervisors carry out decisions that are made at higher levels. Where they can make decisions, the decisions do not have far-reaching ramifications and usually tackle imminent production-related problems. Decision situations at the low levels are such that decisions have immediate impact.

Mid-level managers, on the other hand, find themselves participating in operating decisions. They therefore have an opportunity to have input into higher-level decisions as well as to make decisions which can have significant impact on the organization. Because of this, middle managers must be able to assess decision situations so as to ascertain the extent to which they should allow subordinates to participate in the decision-making process. Participation thus becomes a critical issue for mid-level decision makers. Managers at this level have much more authority to reinforce their decision making and, as a result, must be more cognizant of the impact of their decisions. As opposed to focusing on individuals or small work units, decision situations at mid-levels are more complex and involve additional variables and considerations. Decision making becomes far more process-oriented at the middle levels and much less procedural.

At top management levels, leaders are immediately responsible for the accomplishment of stated objectives. They make policy decisions within the general guidance given by their executives; but, when circumstances warrant it, they take the initiative to make important policy decisions. At executive levels, decision making is actually policy formulation involving the alteration, origination, or elimination of organizational structure (Katz and Kahn, 1966). Since top-level policy makers make decisions in the context of staff meetings, they must be skilled at facilitating group discussion. But the primary skill required at the top levels is cognitive ability, an ability which affords a systemic perspective. (Top-level decision making, especially as it refers to policy making, is discussed under the Planning Dimension.)

There are problems which handicap top-level decision making. Extra-organizational constraints often impinge upon top-level policy makers, making innovative decisions impossible. By their very nature, systems of procedures and regulations are restrictive. This restrictive characteristic creates a myopia which can adversely affect decision making. In analyzing problems, top-level decision makers must be aware that certain solutions to problems may not be afforded by sticking to established procedures and regulations which encourage autocratic decision making. In addition, it is essential for top-level policy makers to realize that subordinates will screen information and data in order to protect their own positions; that is, they will agree with the positions adopted by their superiors so as to curry favor with their bosses (Redding, 1973; Clement, 1973). Decisions which are made

without enough data, or with inaccurate data, are usually bad decisions and thus extremely hazardous to the organization. Therefore, it is incumbent upon top-level managers to foster a climate which facilitates good decision making.

Figure 11 expresses the Decision Making Dimension in terms of organizational levels.

PLANNING

Background

The planning function is one of the most important dimensions of the managerial or leadership role. Planning activity is intended to establish a predetermined course of action so as to meet an explicit purpose or objective. Specific planning activities include the following (See Mackenzie, 1969):

1. Forecasting--establishing where the present course will lead.

2. Setting objectives--determining the desired end results.

3. Developing strategies--deciding how and when to achieve goals.

4. Programming--establishing a priority, sequence and timing of steps.

5. Budgeting--allocating resources.

6. Setting up procedures--standardizing methods.

7. Developing policies--making standard decisions on important recurring matters.

This listing, referring to organizational planning, concentrates on analyzing and changing the existing structure; however, there is another pattern dealing with organizational development.

The organization development planning pattern aims at modifying the behavior and attitudes of organizational members, in addition to changing the structure. Within this context, one finds the following focus as suggested by Gulick (1937):

1. The efficient use of human resources.

2. Adaptation to internal and external change.

3. Prevention of poorly planned organizational change.

LEVEL: / ELEMENTS:	FIRST-LINE	LOW	MIDDLE	TOP EXECUTIVE
A. Conceptual Ability B. Processes and Procedures C. Climate Variable	– Carries out decisions – Formulates decisions which pertain to specific work unit functioning – Assigns workers to particular job	– Deals with structured content – Plans within short-term time parameters – Follows standardized procedures – Understands and utilizes decision-making techniques – Seeks advice from superiors about decisions	– Makes decisions regarding operational procedures – Reviews long-term impact of decisions – Selects the appropriate decision-making process – Determines whether or not to share decision-making authority – Identifies qualified person(s) to make decisions – Leads group discussion	– Establishes an effective decision-making climate – Synthesizes abstract content – Analyzes decisions related to future problems that have been identified – Plans decisions within long-term perspective – Exercises broad power and final authority – Facilitates effective group discussion – Chooses whether or not to procure resources

Figure 11 Decision Making Dimension

4. The management of conflict.

In both patterns leaders anticipate the future, attempt to shape it, and strive to integrate short-range with long-range goals.

Description

Several authors have pointed out that planning ability requires a particular conceptual perspective. Drucker (1974) stated that the ability to set objectives requires analytical and synthesizing skill in order to establish the appropriate balance between organizational results and organizational goals, between immediate needs and future requirements, and between desirable ends and available means. Robert Katz (1955) emphasized the importance of conceptual ability which allows one to see the organization as an integrated system in which the various component subsystems are interrelated. Although Floyd Mann (1965) described the leader's ability to view the organization as an integrated system of people and physical objects as administrative skill, he was clearly referring to a competency similar to the notion put forth by Katz.

Conceptual ability enables one to understand the relationship between the organization and the larger community, specifically political, economic, and social forces. Because this skill facilitates critical decisions affecting production, control, finance, and research, it impacts upon both the present "tone" set by the organization and the future direction it takes. Involved in conceptual skill is a degree of creative ability which facilitates the coordination of all organizational activities and interest toward a common objective, thereby affording long-term planning to meet future contingencies. The importance of conceptual skill cannot be understated; its effectiveness depends upon its natural integration into the individual's makeup (R. Katz, 1955; Mann, 1965).

Daniel Katz and Robert Kahn (1966) also stressed the importance of the cognitive aspect of managerial functioning. The ability to formulate policy, they said, is a reflection of the ability to introduce structural change. And the ability to modify the structure rests upon a congitive capacity which enables one to adopt a systemic perspective. Cognitive ability is the intellective aspect of leadership, neglected in the literature even though executives attest to individual differences in seeing, conceptualizing, appraising, predicting, and understanding the demands the environment places on an organization. Instead, leadership is frequently discussed in terms of persuasiveness and interpersonal skills. Such abilities, however, can prove to be organizational liabilities when cognitive ability is absent, said Katz and Kahn, for cognitive ability indicates the capacity to obtain information about the organizational environment, to interrelate environmental facts with organizational facts, and to forecast the probable

effects of varying courses of action so as to select the best one. Cognitive ability allows one to be predictive--and being able to predict accurately is the essence of good planning.

Livingston (1971) highlighted the need for effective managers to have conceptual or cognitive skill. According to him, planning should concentrate upon finding problems and opportunities. To do this requires "operant behavior" on the part of the manager, a behavior involving far more complex cognitive processes than the "respondent behavior" which facilitates problem solving. For example, managers need to be able to seek out subtle clues that a problem exists, clues and information which are not apparent in financial statements and reports. Problem finding involves perceptual skills which reveal problems before information systems do. These skills can only be developed in situations wherein the individual is encouraged to take action beyond just analyzing a problem. Conceptual ability thus allows the manager or leader to think and act in terms of the total system within which he operates. This skill implies a broad point of view which transcends a parochial focus on the immediate work group.

Planning in Relation to Hierarchical Level

The planning function is clearly differentiated by level. Martin (1956), in finding that different levels of management were involved in different types of decision situations, conjectured that "different orders of intellectual functioning are required at each of these levels" (p. 259). Pfiffner and Sherwood (1960) also contended that a differentiation of tasks by level produces a concomitant differentiation in behavior. For example, both company presidents and foremen plan; however, "a president's planning is strategical and long-run whereas that of a foreman is operational and short run" (p. 138). Inattention to distinctions between organizational levels can cause problems because of the psychological adjustment necessary to move from one level to another (especially from journeyman to foreman, and from middle management to top management), and because of the tendency to continue previous behavior patterns. According to Pfiffner and Sherwood (1960):

> Many people find it difficult to make the adjustment required in moving from a role of action responsibility and immediacy at a lower hierarchial level to one which involves long term coordinative and planning duties at a higher level. In large part, this is a behavioral question, having real implications for the selection and training of management people. (p. 150)

In examining the manner in which planning activity varies by level, one finds that lower-level managers are mainly involved in

scheduling activity. Since they operate within short time parameters, they rarely find themselves engaged in the type of conceptual planning described previously. Rather, they put into effect those plans established at higher levels. The cognitive ability required to operate at the low levels is founded upon technical expertise and a familiarity with administrative procedures, organizational devices, and established rules and regulations.

At the middle levels, leaders and managers have to develop the ability to devise methods to implement policy. In addition, mid-level managers prescribe objectives generally; they do not specify every operational detail. Conceptual skill emerges as an essential element of the planning function at the middle levels and becomes progressively more important at higher levels. It is not until the middle level, however, that the manager has an opportunity to demonstrate this skill. Since he is called upon to present a general management point of view, he needs to be capable of taking a systemic perspective with regard to the organization. A systemic perspective implies that the manager can deal with abstractions and ambiguities. For example, he can sort out the priorities among conflicting objectives; he can deal with relative tendencies and probabilities rather than with certainties; and he can discern rough correlations rather than obvious cause-and-effect relationships.

At the top levels, the leader is required to respond to external demands for changes in personnel, structure, and policy. Reeser (1975) concluded that the "instinct" to ferret out opportunities for profit or to foresee situations destined to lead to loss is essential at senior levels. Because executives are so preoccupied with policy making and with determining future needs and probabilities, the most prominent skill at the top level is for conceptual ability. As Robert Katz (1955) stated:

> Because a company's overall success is dependent on its executives' conceptual skill in establishing and carrying out policy decisions, this skill is the unifying, coordinating ingredient of the administrative process, and of undeniable overall importance. (p. 36)

Katz emphasized that the success of the entire organization is jeopardized if its senior managers are weak in conceptual skill.

Top-level managers have to be capable of making long-range strategic plans. Contrary to the notion that the techniques which facilitate strategic planning can be quantified, Drucker (1974) suggested that there are elements integral to strategic planning which are not subject to quantification. For instance, planning at this level involves a

future-oriented approach which means examining the organization as it is, as it will be, and as it should be. To do this, one has to consider the political climate, the constraints of social responsibility, and human resource limitations--all of which cannot be quantified. If one assumes that he can mastermind the future, he also presumes that he can reliably predict social forces. But strategic ability cannot be based upon such assumptions. Instead, strategic planning involves analytical thought, imagination, and judgment, as well as a willingness to take risk with rational forethought. The manager with conceptual ability builds futurity into his present thought and action; he plans with the greatest knowledge of the future implications of his present decision making. Important aspects of planning at the high levels are the desire and the ability to rid the organization of structures and policy which are unproductive and obsolete.

Conceptual ability cannot be developed suddenly. Katz (1955) asserted that if conceptual skill is not nurtured from preadolescence it cannot later be inculcated in the individual. Therefore, it is unreasonable to expect a person to develop conceptual skill once he reaches an executive position if he has not been thinking this way since childhood. Previously developed conceptual abilities can, however, be enhanced through job rotation among different positions at the same level of responsibility, special interdepartmental assignments, placement as junior advisors on management boards, and involvement in case problems.

The implication of the above discussion is self-evident: if organizations seek executives who have conceptual skill, it is essential to identify individuals at the middle levels who indicate that they possess the ability and thereafter allow them opportunities to develop it. Coaching is one of the best methods to enhance conceptual skill; the superior can allow the subordinate to participate in problem-solving activities, and thereafter provide critical performance feedback.

Planning as an Operation

As the preceeding discussion has shown, planning is difficult to articulate in terms of discrete task activities because it is a highly cognitive dimension. If planning is examined as a set of operations, it includes some decision making which itself subsumes the ability to establish broad objectives. Planning also implies initiating and approving changes in key personnel, an activity which calls upon one to exercise his influence and authority. It is important to note that the concept of planning as a broad dimension or managerial function embodies more than a set of operations; it refers to all operations which lead to a certain result, what Carlson (1951) called "unity of action." For this reason, it is a dimension which is difficult to dissect into singular tasks. Notwithstanding this limitation, Figure 12

LEVEL: / ELEMENTS:	FIRST-LINE	LOW	MIDDLE	TOP	EXECUTIVE
A. Procedures 1. Establishing Procedures and Policy 2. Allocating Resources 3. Budgeting 4. Programming 5. Scheduling B. Processes 1. Dealing with Change 2. Conceptualizing 3. Forecasting 4. Strategizing 5. Problem-Finding	– Schedules work and maintenance – Sets short-term production goals – Organizes for the immediate present – Operates within short-term spans – Complies with administrative procedures – Adapts to change	– Schedules work – Sets short-term production goals – Analyzes within immediate time-frame – Establishes procedures – Operates within stated resource limitations – *Adapts to change*	– Participates in some planning activities – Establishes intermediate general objectives – Organizes short-term programs – Analyzes within long-term perspective – Implements policy – Diagnoses internal system operations (internal system perspective) – Makes recommendations – Adapts to internal and external change	– Strategizes – Reassesses organizational goals – Analyzes within long-term time frame – Interprets policy – *Adapts to external system perspective* – Allocates human resources efficiently – Budgets – Diagnoses poorly planned organizational change – Identifies or finds problems – Forecasts – Evaluates and obsoletes dysfunctional plans, programs that are no longer effective	– Conceptualizes – Establishes goals – Evaluates consequences of present actions in the long-term (e.g. legal ramifications) – Determines policy – Formulates external system perspective – Makes appraisals on a predictive basis – Develops a flexible posture toward change – Anticipates reactions – Forecasts – Innovates – Interprets ambiguity – Originates structure – Analyzes union relations – Synthesizes economic principles – Synthesizes current social and cultural influences

Figure 12 Planning Dimension

attempts to clarify the Planning Dimension in terms of identifiable activities at each organizational level.

ETHICS

Background

Modern organizations and institutions exist for a variety of reasons: business enterprises are designed to make a profit, social institutions to serve a particular clientele, and government agencies to implement federal policies. Regardless of purpose, these institutions have an obligation to concern themselves with what they do to society, as well as with what they can do for society--because of the fact that they arise out of society. In accepting their societal obligation, organizations take responsibility for identifying and anticipating their social impacts. Coupled with this responsibility is an institutional awareness of limitations on organizational authority. These limitations on authority are tempered by an appreciation of organizational ethics. Barnard (1938) articulated ethics as a leadership dimension many years ago; his thesis--unfortunately ignored in the excitement generated by other theses in his classic, The Functions of the Executive--is that the capacity for creating morals in others should be an aspect of leadership. To Barnard, executive values should be regarded as codes of behavior rather than as a composite of personality traits.

Description

Because ethics is a highly philosophical concept, it is a difficult dimension to treat. One way to deal with such an abstract concept is to break it down into component elements. A survey of a number of American corporations presently preoccupied with several ethical issues supported delineating ethics into elements. Barnard (1938) broke the moral code of an executive into two sources: 1) a set of personal codes and 2) a set of organizational codes. For the purposes of this discussion, organizational ethics will be analyzed in terms of a three-part description which consists of the following parts:

1. Professionalism
2. Individual Ethics
3. Organizational Responsibilities

Professionalism

Today, a new collective leadership group--consisting of leaders of

business enterprises, universities, government agencies, and social service institutions--has emerged. As a member of one of the most important leadership groups in the country, a leader or manager accures position, status, prestige, perquisites, and authority. He also enjoys more autonomy in his functioning than do his subordinates. But accompanying his autonomy is evidence of a professional ethic capable of imposing upon him the requirement for self-scrutiny--in deeds, words, and behaviors. A professional ethic has the potential to be a powerful force guiding individual conduct; as such, it can establish and ensure conformity to institutional standards and norms. In assuming a professional profile, leaders are called upon to exercise a high degree of self-control; in fact, it is their professional duty to police themselves.

Both complicated and casual restraints operate on the individual to preserve the necessary degree of self-control. Included are the professional's self-imposed sense of responsibility to principle above self-interest, the judgment of his peers and superiors, and the real threat of punishment for breaking formal and informal ethical standards. Understanding that the income, general prestige, and specific honors, privileges, and compensations which accrue are forms of societal reward for occupational performance, the professional complies with established standards of conduct.

Keeping in mind that the above represents the ideal, one nevertheless finds that the leader, as a professional, is expected to conform to the social patterns, expectations, and responsibilities which are part of his leadership role. Specifically, he finds it beneficial to adhere to certain established standards of consumption, dress, and decorum. For example, executives spend similar amounts for their homes, cars, clothes, recreational activities, and civic participation. The individual complies with the norms of his work group, primarily because he is aware that his work group (and the organization) will not--since it cannot afford to--tolerate deviant, peculiar, unorthodox, or troublesome behavior. Influencing this conformity, then, is a leader's role perception (Strother, 1976).

The leadership role expects a professional profile which calls for an exchange. In return for responsible and appropriate conduct (i.e., a cooperative attitude, punctuality, discretion, conformity of dress, stability, a commitment to hard work), the professional finds that his "clients" place their trust and confidence in his competency and allow him much latitude to apply his judgment and skills. An individual needs this latitude to function effectively in his leadership position.

Individual Ethics

As a leader, an individual finds himself set apart from the group

and thus subject to a great amount of scrutiny. Particularly subject to scrutiny is his personal sense of integrity as manifested through his behavior. As Barnard (1938) stated, personal codes reflect familial and religious values, as well as values derived from membership in fraternal organizations and professional associations. Whether or not he is aware of it, the manager or leader acts as a role model to his subordinates. He therefore exercises a great amount of influence over his subordinates' behavior and ethical beliefs. Studies (Baumhart, 1974; Newstrom and Ruch, 1975) have shown that the ethical beliefs of employees are similar to those of top management. Consequently, top management, as a critical reference group, has the potential to change and control subordinate behaviors by providing an important source of ethical standards.

Indeed, top management must set the example if a higher standard of ethics is to emerge in an organization. "Corporate ethics are determined at the chief executive level and filtered downward through an explicit or implicit statement of philosophy or through illustrative executive behavior" (Newstrom and Ruch, 1975, p. 30). As a result, a corporate system for communicating ethical behavior is needed to provide employees information regarding acceptable and unacceptable ethical limits. A written code of ethics promulgating standards of conduct is one means to meet this need. But what is additionally required is the conscious ethical modeling on the part of those in a management or leadership position--particularly at the top levels. Barnard (1938) wrote about the "quality of responsibility"--"which gives dependability and determination to human conduct, and foresight and ideality to purpose" (p. 260)--as the moral factor of leadership. This moral quality need not be formally articulated, however, for it is inferred from the individual's disposition to respond to particular situations in predictable ways.

An ethical code serves as a worthy goal of moral conduct and provides a meaningful frame of reference to guide behavior. Some may argue that codes of ethics which are too ideal are no longer useful because they set up expectations of impossible perfection in ethical matters. While organizations must allow for--and even tolerate to a degree--human shortcomings, they must also establish codes of ethics which aspire to the ideal; if they are to be useful, ideals ought not guarantee attainment. It is necessary to have a gap between aspiration and achievement since it is this gap which produces the creative tension which in turn motivates one to improve his performance and to strive for the ideal. When the disparity between aspiration and performance is too great, the ideal no longer serves to motivate the individual to improve his performance.

The fact that a code of ethics exists to guide individual ethical conduct in an organization does not solely meet the requirement for self-policing. Institutional arrangements--the organizational environment--can either support or undermine the desired ethical standards. "Where the system does not corrupt, the individual usually performs creditably; where the system corrupts, most individuals give in" (Sorley, 1975, p. 8). Unfortunately, the environment can operate to preclude the internalization of an ethical sensibility. Newstrom and Ruch (1975) found that managers were inclined to capitalize on opportunities to be unethical when barriers to unethical behavior were lessened or removed. Individuals clearly need a supportive environment to be their best and to do their best. An environment which undermines their integrity and which routinely penalizes candor and truthfulness is an inhibiting one at best, and a self-destructive one at worst. Rather than scale down or modify institutional and personal standards of ethical conduct so as to bring them more in line with what may be more attainable, leaders need to remove through policy reforms those institutional practices which subject individual integrity to unnecessary stress.

Individual Ethics Applied to Organizational Level

Although the need for a manager or leader to scrutinize his own behavior increases as he moves upward in the managerial hierarchy, the need for an ethical sensibility exists at every organizational level. Even at the lowest levels, the foreman must realize that part of his responsibility is to admonish unethical behavior by subordinates. The organization cannot afford the negative publicity surrounding publication of ethical transgressions; if it does, it suffers a loss of status--and, eventually, privilege, responsibility, and autonomy. The first-level supervisor must also be aware that he serves as an organizational spokesman and example; as such, he is obliged to approximate high standards and to respect organizational precepts. For instance, if he is to gain the respect of his employees, he must maintain some social distance between himself and his subordinates. Therefore, he has to act in a fashion which denotes this necessary degree of detachment (i.e., he must not socialize too closely with his subordinates outside work). The mid-level manager is especially visible to his supervisors; as a result, he finds himself subjected to even greater behavioral constraints. At the executive levels, the behavior of leaders is so closely scrutinized that the individual finds himself having to conform to an even more clearly delineated role stereotype.

Many authors have emphasized that executives operate under stringent personal demands which call for them to demonstrate a high degree of integrity. Hemphill (1960), Drucker (1974), Mahler and Wrightnour (1973), and Reeser (1975) are a few who stressed that ethical conduct is an important leadership requirement. Leaders clearly have an obligation to be conscious of the propriety of their behavior, to be

honest and fair in their interactions with people, to display a sense of justice, to express high personal values, and to demonstrate a sense of ethicality, especially in profit-making activities. There are several influences which impact upon ethical behavior: 1) the perquisites of office; 2) the process of administration; 3) power; 4) program; and 5) people (Barnard, 1938). The behavior of a leader in a given situation varies according to the relative dominance of these influences. Preoccupation with the perquisites of office, interest in the control of process as an end in itself, obsessive concern with power (power as the chief reinforcer) are corrupting influences inhibiting moral development. Organizational objectives (program) and people concerns probably are the major determinants of a high order of ethical codes. Leaders need to be aware that the first three determinants can lead to a low order of ethical conduct.

Punishment for unethical conduct should become more severe the higher the leader's position. While the first-level supervisor may not be subjected to severe penalty for a transgression, such penalty cannot elude the top-level executive. For example, it is clearly unacceptable for a chairman of the board to demean his position by exposing himself to disgrace for drunken driving while in the company of a woman other than his wife; such behavior is both unprofessional and unethical. Because trangressions of standards of conduct are more adversely potent the higher the individual's position, the leader or manager finds his social and ethical behaviors more explicitly defined. Holding a leadership position can be considered a privilege. In return for this privilege, the manager has a responsibility to preserve the reputation of the organization; tempering this responsibility are ethical guidelines to his behavior.

Organizational Responsibilities

In addition to providing ethical yardsticks by which individuals can evaluate their actions, organizations have a concomitant responsibility to infuse their institutional actions and purpose with moral principles and values. As outgrowths of the society, organizations are obliged to be responsible to all publics affected by their operations; this calls for a posture of social advocacy and a willingness to contribute to community programs. Among organizational leaders, there is a growing sense of responsibility to society, based upon the developing realization that the interests of a particular group are related to the interests of all. Some of this growing concern comes from external pressure, but much of it arises from the deep commitment of corporate leaders to social goals. Several corporations are realizing that their survival depends on a healthy social environment. For example, some organizational leaders are establishing "corporate responsibility committees" and appointing "vice presidents for social policy." The "social responsibility movement" is wrestling with such problems as minority hiring and affirmative action.

But attention to social issues is reactive if it is either a response to social pressures or founded in intuitive feelings. In assuming their social responsibility advocacy, large organizations can be proactive by incorporating ethics into policy formulation. Attention to social issues then becomes a function of projection and planning. A proactive stance reflects an appraisal of the value of an organization's policies for the larger society and the vision to see beyond the present to future options. An organization which is proactive identifies those groups and constituencies who are affected by decisons, communicates effectively with them, balances conflicting demands, and takes appropriate action.

The more social responsibility an organization assumes, the more powerful it becomes. To circumvent abuses of this power, and to guarantee accountability, institutions need a comprehensive ethic of policy formulation. A corporate ethic applicable to policy formulation increases action alternatives, heightens the collective social sensitivity and ethical insight, and enables leaders to participate actively and conscientiously in human, community, and social affairs.

Ethical Dictates According to Organizational Level

A three-part description of ethics allows one to focus on the fact that organizations should be concerned with both individual and corporate ethics. At every level it is both essential and practical for managers and leaders to comply with established standards of conduct.

The lower-level supervisor understands that, as a role model with substantial influence over his subordinates, he needs to be punctual, discrete, appropriately attired, cooperative, fair, and honest. As he moves higher in the organization, he begins to feel the impact of behavioral constraints and thus has to maintain the proper amount of social distance between himself and his subordinates.

At the middle levels, managers are more visible since they function as organizational representatives. As a result, they are called upon to demonstrate their integrity, to identify conflicts of interest, to be concerned with product quality, and to display their organizational commitment.

As the individual ascends to top-level positions, his focus expands to public relations concerns, he participates in policy decisions, he acts as an organizational spokesman, and he becomes concerned primarily with company integrity and matters of business reputation. At the senior levels he is in a position to articulate an organizational value system, to participate in community and social affairs, to take a stand on environmental and legal issues. At the same time, he operates under the stringent personal demand to

act as an exemplary role model. In addition, senior executives require what Reeser (1975) calls public relations ability. This ability is manifested in the concern to improve and preserve an image of the organization which meets with public approval.

Barnard (1938) stated that the main distinction between lower- and higher-level leaders lies not in the degree of responsibility but in the degree of moral complexity. At the higher levels an executive must cope both with more complex and more numerous behavioral and moral codes; herein lies the opportunity for conflict between varying codes of conduct. Not only is complexity of codes an issue, but also at the heart of the distinction is the fact that executive ethical behavior is determined conceptually and not by a set of mottoes or conditioned responses.

Ethical Implications for Leaders

Organizations have a responsibility to provide codes of conduct to guide individual behavior. But they also have a responsibility to take an active role in meeting social needs. The public expects its leaders to aspire to high ethical ideals and its institutions to contribute to the social order. Ethics provides the framework in which individuals and organizations carry out these responsibilities.

Leaders and managers in this country are obliged to do more than merely conform to normative standards constantly evolving in the society at large. More importantly, they must accept the challenge to take an active role in shaping society's basic value structure. To do this, they must both articulate and behaviorally demonstrate what they consider to be appropriate cultural values. To merely reflect without prescribing creates an environment wherein leaders relinquish control over a domain affecting themselves, their organization, and society at large. It remains for society's leaders, with their prestige, credibility, and legitimacy, to accept the challenge to make a difference.

Strother (1976), in a reemphasis of Barnard's (1938) treatment of executive morality, highlighted Barnard's assertion that senior executives need to do more than merely comply or conform responsibly to a complex set of codes. "The effective executive," he said, "must also have the capacity to create moral codes for others. In this perspective, organizational morale is a manifestation of the success of the executive in creating commonly held codes within the organization" (p. 16). The capacity to create morals in others is, according to Barnard, a function of leadership rather than organizational structure. And the capacity to create morals implies the ability to shape events and to raise the level of organizational aspiration. The by-product of all this is "esprit de corps." If the incentives to act (i.e.,

to accomplish organizational and professional objectives) are moral incentives, subordinates will evidence a high sense of responsibility to a high order of moral code. When a low order of moral code exists, a high sense of responsibility to such a low code creates situations similar to Watergate. It remains for society's leaders, with their prestige, credibility, and legitimacy, to accept the challenge to make a difference.

Figure 13 explores the Ethics Dimension.

LEVEL: / ELEMENTS:	FIRST-LINE	LOW	MIDDLE	TOP	EXECUTIVE
A. Individual Behavior and Values B. Professionalism C. Organizational Responsibilities	– Recognizes the need to be punctual, discrete, cooperative, fair, honest in dealing with people – Practices good personal hygiene – Recognizes the impact of role modeling	– Identifies the need to be consistent, supportive, conforming – Comprehends the fact that the leader has to operate under behavioral constraints – Recognizes the value of maintaining social distance and so begins to detach himself from socializing outside work with subordinates	– Demonstrates ethical behavior – Demonstrates integrity – Identifies conflicts of interest – Focuses on product improvement, product/service quality – Realizes that he serves as an organizational spokesman – Speaks and acts as a representative of the group – Maintains definite social distance from subordinates – Deals with client customer complaints – Displays commitment to hard work	– Demonstrates ethical behavior – Expresses ethical beliefs – Reinforces ethical behavior – Identifies conflicting loyalities and goals – Formulates plans regarding conflicts of interest – Is responsible for reputation of company products, services – Is aware of organizational obligation to be responsive to social needs in community – Is concerned with public relations – Addresses which groups within and outside the organization would benefit from ethical policy – Plans realistic ethics policy – Provides data for ethical policy decisions – Displays professional dedication – Has working knowledge of business ethics	– Evidences "gentlemanly" behavior – Articulates appropriate organizational value system – Focuses on company integrity, business reputation – Works to protect the integrity of the institution – Operates under stringent personal demands – Is exemplary role model – Participates in community affairs – Formulates plan for maintaining the goodwill of the organization – Maintains respect of important people – Develops ethical framework capable of dealing with corporate goals, policies, operations, and peripheral social issues – Synthesizes and responds to environmental issues

Figure 13 Ethics Dimension

PART FOUR

In the previous section each of the nine dimensions was discussed in detail and presented as a profile of representative behavioral tasks and activities. The separate profiles illustrate how each dimension applies to a particular organizational level. In this section the disparate profiles will be integrated into a cohesive matrix illustrating all nine dimensions in terms of hierarchical level. Figure 14 depicts the relative degree of emphasis of each dimension at each level. Two profiles emerge, one horizontally for each dimension, the other vertically for each level. Figure 15 describes in detail each cell of the matrix. (The reader will find Figure 15 as a detached foldout inserted into the Monograph.)

The Horizontal Profile

Figure 14 represents a matrix depicting the emphasis on each leadership dimension according to level. The degree of emphasis depicted throughout this matrix was derived by summing the number of discrete activities and processes in each dimension by level as discussed in Part Three. The horizontal profile of each dimension stresses how each dimension progressively changes according to organizational level. One can readily infer from Figure 14 the relative importance of all nine dimensions at every level. Four dimensions (Communication, Decision Making, Planning, and Ethics) increase steadily in importance as one ascends the managerial hierarchy. Two dimensions (Supervision and Technical) decrease in corresponding importance. And three dimensions (Human Relations, Management Science, and Counseling) increase in importance to a certain point and thereafter diminish in emphasis. The reader should also note that the total number of tasks increases markedly at the middle levels. This profile provides implications for leadership development over time.

The Vertical Profile

In contrast to the horizontal profile in Figure 14, the second profile is pronounced on the vertical axis. This profile highlights how all nine dimensions combine to provide a picture of what managers at each of five different levels need to emphasize with respect to developing competencies. It has special importance for those involved in designing leadership training programs suitable to a particular level.

Figure 14 depicts the leadership dimension by level.

Although the vertical profile shows relative emphasis according to level, it does not provide the degree of detail needed by those engaged in instructional curriculum design. To provide more specificity, Figure 15 elaborates upon each cell with a listing of major activities required of a manager or leader at a given level. This matrix is the composite of the separate profiles introduced in Part Three.

Figure 15 describes each cell of the matrix.

Figure 14 The Emphasis on Leadership Dimensions by Level

PART FIVE

This monograph began by establishing organizational leadership as the primary focus of this research effort. Part Two introduced the methodology selected to derive nine dimensions of organizational leadership. A model was then proposed in which each dimension was related to a particular organizational level. In Part Three each of the nine dimensions was discussed in detail. Finally, a prescriptive developmental matrix of organizational leadership behaviors was presented in Part Four.

An important variable of leadership development not previously discussed is organizational environment. The environment defines expected job behaviors and concomitantly establishes an incentive system designed to reinforce these behavioral expectations. Maximum transferrence of training occurs when the work environment is supportive and enhancing.

This section will address climate considerations conducive to leadership development.

The Importance of an Attitude Favoring Development

Of the many variables defining an organization's climate, perhaps the most important variable is the attitude which either favors or disfavors leadership development in the work environment and work culture. Whether an attitude is clearly articulated or not, one can surmise an organization's attitude about work and management by observing actual behaviors within the organization. Thus, it is important that existing behavioral practices be consistent with attitudes when they are articulated; otherwise, training efforts will be improperly designed.

Leadership training and leader development are enhanced by the prevalence of an attitude which promotes the idea of development as a necessity. Such an attitude must permeate all organizational operations and represent a point of view believed in and practiced by the highest organizational echelons downward through every level. The organizational climate directly influences leadership training and development in two ways: first of all, it affords individuals opportunities to learn on the job, to apply principles, skills and knowledge acquired in external training courses, to take significant risks--and thus a chance to grow in the leadership role; secondly, it expresses the organization's degree of concern for the individual.

An organizational value system which favors leadership development seeks to improve individual and, ultimately, organizational performance. Environmental opportunities can inhibit, enhance, or impede development. The best development and training programs are worthless when promulgated in a climate which frustrates the transfer of learning back to the job, either because the skills emphasized in training are not those actually needed to perform the necessary tasks and therefore seldom, if ever, practiced in the actual job situation; or because there is no genuine belief in development, particularly at the top organizational levels where policy is formulated.

Robert House (1967) is one researcher who stresses the importance of a conducive leadership development climate. In answer to what a conducive climate is, he says:

> Certainly it is one in which the manager has the opportunity to utilize in practice those ideas presented in training; one in which the policy

> framework, the reward system and the leadership expectations are consistent with the content of the learning effort. It is this concept of organization culture and climate which is perhaps most important in transferring information and skills from training to the job. The organization conditions must be "right" or transfer will not occur. (pp. 102-103)

The fact is that management has much to gain by codifying its value system about leadership development. But, as stated previously, merely writing down what the organization's perceptions of its desires and responsibilities are vis-à-vis its people is not enough. Support for development has to be actualized through opportunities for development (i.e., job rotation, coaching, etc.), and reward systems which favorably sanction developmental programs as well as the individual's desire and need to improve himself. If support is not behaviorally operationalized in policies and actions relating to all selection and promotion procedures, it soon becomes evident that support toward development is hollow, and management's regard for it nothing more than lip service.

A value system favorable to development provides a reference point for managerial action and imbues the organization with a "personality" which defines how the organization goes about achieving its goals and objectives. A supportive value system is also the unifying force combining desired ends with those means adopted to produce results. Thus a value system has practical value to an organization if it is integrated into the organization's operations, rules, and norms. A value system is worthless if not consistently operationalized. Further, if it is not clarified, it is incapable of being the cornerstone of all of the organization's efforts--the thread unifying its objectives and the power uniting its work force.

Leadership Training Versus Leader Development

A developmental model treats the individual as a composite of human traits. These are traits which are modifiable to the extent that knowledge, skills, attitudinal tendencies and behavioral competencies can be altered within given limitations. Leadership development has as its objective behavioral improvement, the result being to increase the individual's ability to perform successfully in a leadership role. The idea of development, then, encompasses skill acquisition, personal growth, cognitive enhancement, and a corollary attitudinal change.

It is important to understand that leadership training and development are not synonymous. Training encompasses the imparting

of knowledge and skills within a very specific and narrow content range. Training can be given in various settings and over varying subject areas. But development is more comprehensive. Developmental opportunities attempt to broaden a person's understanding, judgment, analytical powers, decision-making abilities, and human relations skills. Education is the context in which developmental efforts are articulated and ultimately specified as training programs. Leadership development is not nearly as restricted in its focus as is leadership skill training.

A true developmental program is not reducible to a handful of isolated training courses for a few selected groups of individuals for a short period of time. What is encountered too often is a program of leadership development consisting of sending an individual to a series of classes, often long after he has assumed a leadership position. While the particular course may not necessarily be worthy of criticism, what is open to criticism is the manner in which the individual is selected for training. Optimally, training courses are considered as one aspect of development; in this regard, the individual is assessed as to those skills he possesses needing enhancement, or those he lacks needing developing. Considered as longitudinal processes, courses are supplements and not substitutes to development. Leadership development is neither a program nor even a series of programs. It is a system--a continual process which is carried out over time.

In addition, too little attention is paid the on-the-job environment as a learning forum. What better trainer does an individual have than his superior as a role model? Certainly, it is the superior who controls most of the rewards and who determines the value system in the daily work situation. Thus, what better learning setting can one find than his actual job environment? When top-level leaders consider this seriously, the responsibility they have regarding the quality of both their managerial personnel and working conditions becomes awesome.

The Necessity for Top-Level Commitment

Top management's commitment is probably the most critical requirement of any development effort. Unless this commitment exists, the most that can be expected is a change in the managerial performance of a few. Yet a few isolated changes are insufficient in improving overall organizational performance. Development can only begin where top management is willing to consider changes and suggestions for improvement in the existing climate. This implies a commitment to assume responsibility for rectifying those organizational practices impeding development.

If top-level leaders do not make policy decisions and commitments related to development without an awareness of possible consequences--preferring instead to go through the motions of development--improved performance is highly unlikely. Development then becomes an "extra-curricular" activity embodying the idea of "injecting" knowledge periodically into the individual with little or no regard for the integration of self-development into the total development plan. Development must be an integrated process conducted on a continuing basis or it is not development--it is really nothing more than miscellaneous training.

The Value of Leadership Development

A program of effective human resource management, as espoused through a conscientious value system favoring development, considers the dynamic relationship between individual growth and organizational growth. Such a program reflects an attitude of action and not re-action. Instead of operating merely to meet present expediencies, the organization attempts to plan wisely for the future. In this respect, personnel are rewarded for dealing with opportunities as well as with problems. Effective human resource management assures the placement of people with the correct mixture of skills and knowledge, in the right place, at the right time and price. The quality of personnel cannot be undervalued with regard to the success of the organization; indeed, quality is a most crucial factor in the ability of the organization to utilize its scientific, technical, social, economic, and managerial resources. A working value system favoring leadership development serves as a vehicle for the organization to properly emphasize the value of its human resources.

Leadership development is a two-dimensional dynamic concept: it concentrates on organizational development as well as on individual development. On the one hand, its purpose is to ensure the health, survival, and growth of the enterprise; on the other, it aims to promote the health, growth, and achievement of the enterprise's members. In its organizational focus, leadership development is "outside-focused" in that it considers the kind of leadership which will be needed to meet future exigencies. In its individual focus, leader development is "person-focused" in that it seeks to develop to the fullest the individual's abilities and strengths so that he might be a more achieving contributor.

The Leadership Development Model

The leadership development model outlined in Leadership Monograph 7, "A Progressive Model for Leadership Development," (Clement and Zierdt, 1975) emphasized two points: 1) leader development is a process comprised of three variables (attitudes, skill and knowledge,

and opportunity); and 2) leadership development is a long-range process, best effectuated sequentially and progressively, in which the motivated individual is provided appropriate training to enhance his skills and knowledge repertoire, as well as those opportunities which facilitate the application of his competencies. Since feedback as to the effectiveness of one's performance is an essential ingredient of the model, organizational factors have direct relevancy to the progress of the individual's development. The supervisor or leader is therefore a crucial link in the entire process. The organizational environment defines the desired objectives and outcomes of work efforts and thus expected job behaviors which themselves are controlled by established feedback procedures. Incentives, in the form of rewards; job challenges; opportunities for status, achievement, recognition, security, etc., stimulate motivation by providing occasions for the individual to satisfy his preferences, needs, and expectations.

What a Developmental Philosophy Implies

Development efforts must be examined in relation to the task, the goals to be achieved, and the characteristics of the individuals involved. It is also necessary to realize the difficulties involved in transferring certain skills back to the job situation. Management thus has an obligation to alleviate such difficulties and thereby to facilitate skill transfer. For one thing, resistance to change must be overcome. Climate and opportunity factors must be realistically assessed and accordingly influenced, since it is unreasonable to expect change without organizational conditions which invite and support it. Leadership development is a systems-wide undertaking requiring internal consistency between the intent of development efforts and organizational planning, managerial selection, and appraisal and compensation practices. The indication is clearly for a close articulation between what one preaches as a philosophy of development and what is actually practiced.

A leadership development philosophy represents a far-reaching approach to the fuller utilization of human ability in that it seeks to establish and coordinate at every level the professional and personal development of each individual in a leadership role in terms of the present task and future needs of the organization. Developmental programs must be tailored to the specific level of development required. Not only does this imply evaluating the type of program, length of time, location, resources, content, and learning models involved, but it also suggests a clear delineation of what knowledge and which skills are required to perform effectively in a leadership role. The central questions are thus: "What does a leader do?" and "What does he need to do?" What is needed is a definitive understanding, expressed in terms of explicit behavioral, affective, and cognitive competencies, of what constitutes effective organizational leadership.

PART SIX

This present study has concentrated on identifying critical elements of organizational leadership behavior. Nine dimensions of organizational leadership were derived from an interpretive analysis of behavioral and management research and a survey of several industrial executive development programs. Each leadership dimension was clarified in terms of identifiable tasks and behaviors. Additionally, the separate dimensions were examined in relation to organizational level; in some cases five levels were analyzed, while in others it was possible to focus on only three levels. Leadership requirements were thus considered for leadership positions from the lowest to the highest organizational levels. Together the nine dimensions comprise a matrix of functions and activities that should be performed in an organization for it to operate effectively. Figure 14 illustrates how much emphasis each dimension has at each organizational level. Figure 15 illustrates activities and concerns that apply to each dimension at specified organizational levels. Throughout, the central focus has been on what leaders do. In addition to examining leadership behaviors in order to clarify the skills variable, the opportunity variable (climate and environment) was also discussed.

The final section articulates pertinent conclusions and implications arising from this study.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The leadership matrix which has resulted from this study is a prescriptive leadership training and development model. It highlights those organizational functions which in toto are essential to effective organizational operation. Although it may seem to, the model does not stipulate functions that any individual leader must be capable of performing. Depending upon the organization, the collective functions may be carried out by a few highly competent leaders or by several leaders, each of whom prossess skills of a particular dimension. Nevertheless, the matrix does suggest that leaders in organizations need to be aware of those functions which contribute to organizational effectiveness and skilled in several key areas. Rarely would any single leader be so proficient that he could carry out every function. It would be even rarer if he had the time to do so. The leadership matrix is more an organizational than an individual model for development.

The matrix does have several important implications. For one, it illustrates that leaders have to concern themselves with a wide array of skills in a variety of areas. The study leads one to conclude that it is indeed possible to go beyond general behavioral orientations (results of early Ohio State and University of Michigan studies) or a few factors to describe leadership behavior. Although the dimensions outlined herein are not the product of strict factor analyses, they are nonetheless important hypotheses about the component elements of leadership.

In addition to suggesting that leadership can be dissected into several elements, the matrix also provides a profile of those skills which apply to a particular organizational level. The model illustrates that leaders at every organizational level do not necessarily engage in the same activities. Even when activities apply across the organizational spectrum, the focus of the activity may shift. The reader may recall that planning is one dimension which applies at every level; however, at the lowest levels it is mainly short-term scheduling while at the top levels it is long-range and strategic. If one looks at the matrix vertically, he obtains a profile of the mix of dimensions appropriate to that level. If one follows the dimension horizontally across the levels of the matrix, he gains an understanding of how the dimension changes by level. In scanning the matrix, the reader will note that the number of specific tasks and variety of skills called for increase markedly at the middle level. There is also a very significant distinction between the profile of skills and knowledge required of lower-level leaders and the profile needed by leaders at the top levels.

The content of a dimension is not the only thing which changes according to level. The dimensions also change in orientation. At the lower levels, the skills implied in each dimension refer mainly to procedures and techniques; these skills can be acquired largely through training programs. But as an individual begins to move into mid-level positions--and especially thereafter--his focus shifts from procedures to processes. He is more concerned with integrating and synthesizing particular techniques into operations. This shift implies a conceptual ability which may not be called upon until the middle levels but which is crucial to successful functioning in a leadership role at higher organizational levels. The shift which begins occurring at the middle levels calls for very different abilities and different perspectives. For example, leaders at the lower levels maintain an internal system perspective. It is not until they move into the higher-level positions that leaders begin to adopt an external system perspective. Top-level executives, for the most part, are primarily involved in activities which require them to look outside the organization. Specifically, they concern themselves with questions of organizational reputation, the impact of laws and governmental regulations, issues related to the environment and society, and other economic, political, and socio-cultural forces which affect their organizations. The shift in perspective which occurs has important implications for leadership training programs and developmental opportunities: from the middle levels on, those skills which leaders require are a product of developmental opportunities. Clearly, some dimensions are more amenable to skill training than are others.

The leadership matrix also has implications for direct application. Perhaps the most obvious application is in the area of curriculum design for leadership training programs. Curriculum designers can gain a clear picture of those dimensions--and, more specifically, those skills--which they should be developing at the levels to which their training programs are oriented. The vertical profile of dimensions and skills by level outlines this leadership curriculum.

Also, those who are engaged in manpower planning can ascertain what kinds of skills exist in the organization at the present and can anticipate what skills will be needed in the future. Given this assessment, they can first begin to identify individuals who can provide needed future competencies, and can thereafter map developmental career plans to ensure that future human resources match the organization's requirements. The horizontal profile of each dimension across organizational levels is helpful in this effort. Of course, it is apropos to reemphasize here that top management commitment is essential to effecting developmental programs.

While leadership trainers and planners undoubtedly will find the matrix a valuable tool, it by no means specifies for them the full range

of tasks subject to skill development. Rather, at this stage of its refinement, it simply presents general guidelines. The matrix will have to be developed further if it is to present the degree of depth desired for instructional design application. In its present state, the leadership matrix's value is that it proposes a framework in which to begin exploring in depth a comprehensive listing of leadership behaviors and tasks at each level. Since leadership training and development are ultimately aimed at helping leaders to function better, the matrix suggests those areas in which training should focus, as well as how development should progress. Not all dimensions necessarily lend themselves to training and development in a formal school environment. For example, both human relations skills and ethical awareness are more appropriately addressed in the actual work setting.

In addition to its applicability to leadership training and development, this study has implications for additional research. As mentioned above, substantial additional research is required to specify in greater detail the behavioral requirements inherent in each of the dimensions. The proposed matrix also requires empirical verification since it is presently a quasi-theoretical model. Job analysis efforts would not only permit more refined behavioral emphasis but also contribute to an empirical verification of the model.

In conclusion, the leadership matrix is felt to be an important step forward in describing what leaders do. But it is not an all-inclusive description. Its significance lies in its synthesis of a vast collection of literature, and its pragmatic applicability, despite its highly theoretical characteristics, to realistic and actual situations. More importantly, it is a model which focuses on identifiable leadership competencies which are directly amenable to a package of training programs and development opportunities. It is hoped that this effort provides the foundation for the establishment of a sequential and progressive leadership development effort. Such an accomplishment, no matter how rudimentary, provides a model for continued exploration of a critical organizational concern: how to meet leadership requirements.

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USAFPP 81-37 3/80

LEADERSHIP MONOGRAPH SERIES#8 – A MATRIX OF

ORGANIZATIONAL LE\

	LIEUTENANTS (FIRST-LINE)	CAPTAINS (LOW)	MAJOR
1. COMMUNICATION A. Interpersonal B. Organizational	Applies interpersonal skills Provides interpersonal and performance feedback Develops persuasion skills Listens empathically Employs horizontal communication channels Disseminates information Reads technical reports Provides daily production information		Applies writing sk Employs organiza Develops persuasi Listens for compr Routes informatic Develops informal Systematizes infor Writes reports Interviews prospe Briefs supervisors
2. HUMAN RELATIONS A. Intergroup Relations B. Intragroup Relations	Formulates relations within a small work group Keeps subordinates informed Applies rewards equitably Gives credit where due Responds to personal needs and problems Evaluates immediate personal needs of subordinates	Plans work group inter-relations Comprehends the general principles of human behavior Emphasizes and copes with others' emotional reactions Shows interest in subordinates' welfare Is sensitive to union relations Diagnoses how superiors are likely to act and how subordinates are motivated	Plans relations betw Works to create a st atmosphere Applies facilitative : Integrates individua needs Respects the dignity
3. COUNSELING A. Personal Counseling B. Performance Counseling	Identifies employees with personal problems Refers subordinates to appropriate personnel or agency Employs open-ended questioning Evaluates work performance against job criteria	Refers problems as appropriate Assists individuals to develop and implement action plans for resolution of manageable problem areas Selects interviewing techniques (eye contact, body position) Synthesizes feedback content Identifies performance criteria Provides performance feedback Suggests plans for performance feedback	Conducts exit inter Recommends empl Establishes yardstic performance Provides and receive Identifies performar Devises and enacts p
4. SUPERVISION A. Procedures Organizing Directing Inspecting Advising & Explaining Maintaining Trouble-shooting Motivating B. Techniques	Enforces organizational rules Treats subordinates fairly & consistently Coordinates with peers Organizes use of equipment Develops workforce cohesion Assigns persons to tasks Administers on-the-spot corrective action Maintains personal contact with subordinates Performs safety inspections Orients new people	Differentiates hour-to-hour results Administers rewards and punishments appropriately Formulates efficient procedures Matches work group activities to those of other groups Defines supervisory responsibilities Corrects undesirable behavior of subordinates Orients and trains new people Advises about production data	Performs quality co Focuses on efficien Performs "linking p Creates position des Establishes procedu Selects qualified pe Reviews production
5. TECHNICAL A. Specific Content			

ONS

A MATRIX OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS

ORGANIZATIONAL LEVEL

	MAJOR/LIEUTENANT COLONEL (MIDDLE)	COLONELS (TOP)	GENERAL OFFICERS (EXECUTIVE)
	Applies writing skills Employs organizational feedback techniques Develops persuasion skills Listens for comprehension Routes information Develops informal communication channels Systematizes information Writes reports Interviews prospective employees Briefs supervisors	Communicates verbally and in writing Provides and receives feedback about production goals Establishes information networks Facilitates organizational communication Filters reports and data to executive levels Attends meetings	Communicates verbally Relies on organizational channels Communicates extraorganizationally (with gov't. officials, pressure groups, etc.) Examines reports Attends conferences Represents the organization's viewpoint to the public Meets visitors
	Plans relations between and among groups Works to create a supportive work atmosphere Applies facilitative skills Integrates individual needs with organizational needs Respects the dignity of subordinates	Formulates inter-group and extra-group relations Creates a supportive environment within the organization	Develops the organization's relations with those outside the organization
	Conducts exit interviews Recommends employees for dismissal or separation Establishes yardsticks to evaluate individual and group performance Provides and receives unit performance feedback Identifies performance feedback Devises and enacts performance improvement plans	Identifies colleagues who have personal problems which might adversely affect professional performance and organizational well-being Verifies and evaluates exit-interview information Evaluates performance appraisal systems Reviews performance goals	Establishes climate conducive to counseling Counsels one-on-one with colleagues who have problems
ely	Performs quality control tasks Focuses on efficiency of operations Performs "linking pin" function Creates position descriptions Establishes procedural checks Selects qualified people Reviews production results	Evaluates programs and objectives Reinforces the motivational climate Coordinates sub-unit objectives Utilizes consultants Determines promotability Establishes organizational structure	Maintains total organizational perspective Develops an effective motivational climate Delegates responsibility Focuses on executive development programs

LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS				
5. TECHNICAL A. Specific Content Area B. Procedures Techniques Principles C. Focus on Motor Skills	Performs military occupational specialty Selects procedures, techniques & methods related to specific task or subject area Utilizes equipment Applies motor skills	Performs occupational specialty Selects procedures and methods related to work unit activities Interprets the professional technical role	Comprehends advi processing, mana Synthesizes proce management scie Consults technical
6. MANAGEMENT SCIENCE A. Procedures B. Processes Evaluation Organizing Controlling Problem Solving Setting Objectives Development (Staffing)	Differentiates hour-to-hour results Evaluates immediate needs	Resolves urgent and pending problems immediately	Measures results a Interprets and uti systems Formulates wage Establishes a repo Resolves conflict Identifies problem Develops perform performance Negotiates within Maintains proper i Produces a budget Checks statements Organizes work gr Selects, orients, tr Sets goals and esta Develops managem
7. DECISION MAKING A. Climate Variable B. Conceptual Ability C. Processes & Procedures	Carries out decisions Formulates decisions which pertain to specific work unit functioning Assigns workers to specific jobs	Deals with structured content Plans within short-term time purspective Follows standardized procedures Applies decision-making process Has knowledge of decision-making techniques Seeks advice from superiors regarding decisions	Makes decisions re Reviews long-term Selects the appropr Determines whethe authority Identifies qualified Leads group discus
8. PLANNING A. Procedures Establishing Policies Allocating Resources Budgeting Programming Scheduling B. Processes Conceptualizing Forecasting Strategizing	Schedules work and maintenance Sets daily production goals Organizes for the immediate present Operates within short-term spans Complies with administrative procedures Adapts to change	Schedules work Sets short-term production goals Analyzes within immediate time frame Establishes procedures Operates within stated resource limitations Adapts to change	Participates in som Establishes interme Organizes short-ter Analyzes with long Implements policy Diagnoses internal s (internal system p Makes recommenda Adapts to internal &
9. ETHICS A. Individual Behavior & Values B. Professionalism C. Organizational Responsibilities	Recognizes the need to be punctual, discrete, fair and honest in dealing with people Practices good personal hygiene Recognizes the impact of role modeling	Identifies the need to be consistent and conforming Comprehends the fact that the leader has to operate under behavioral constraints Recognizes the value of maintaining social distance and begins to detach oneself from socializing with subordinates outside the work environment	Demonstrates ethical Displays integrity Identifies conflicts o Focuses on product i Realizes that he serve Speaks and acts as ro Maintains social dista Deals with client com Displays commitmen

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FIGURE 15 A MATRIX OF ORGANIZATIONAL I

Comprehends advanced technology (e.g., data processing, management information systems) Synthesizes procedures & processes subsumed in management science dimension Consults technical experts	Relies on technical experts	Relies on technical experts
Measures results against the plan Interprets and utilizes management information systems Formulates wage and salary administration plans Establishes a reporting system Resolves conflict Identifies problems Develops performance standards and appraises performance Negotiates within work groups Maintains proper inventories Produces a budget and plans cost reductions Checks statements to verify facts Organizes work group activity Selects, orients, trains and develops subordinates Sets goals and establishes priorities Develops management techniques (e.g., MBO)	Evaluates problems Evaluates new ideas Identifies potential problem areas Resolves conflict Reviews budget proposals Manages time Develops performance appraisal systems Determines promotability Formulates wage & salary administration plans Sets long-term objectives Develops management techniques	Formulates & approves executive development programs
Makes decisions re. operational procedures Reviews long-term impact of decisions Selects the appropriate decision-making process Determines whether or not to share decision making authority Identifies qualified person(s) to make decision Leads group discussions	Establishes an effective decision-making climate Synthesizes abstract content Analyzes decisions related to future problems that have been identified Plans decisions within long-term perspective Exercises broad powers & final authority Facilitates effective group discussion Chooses whether or not to procure resources	
Participates in some planning activities Establishes intermediate general objectives Organizes short-term programs Analyzes with long-term perspective Implements policy Diagnoses internal system operations (internal system perspective) Makes recommendations Adapts to internal & external change	Strategizes Reassesses organizations' goals Analyzes within long-term time frame Interprets policy Adapts to external system perspective Allocates human resources Budgets Diagnoses poorly planned organizational change Identifies or finds problems Forecasts Evaluates and obsolates dysfunctional plans & programs that are ineffective	Analyzes union relations Establishes goals Evaluates consequences of present actions Determines policy Conceptualizes Makes appraisals on a predictive basis Develops a flexible change posture Anticipates reaction & interprets ambiguity Forecasts Innovates Originates structure Synthesizes economic principles Synthesizes social & cultural influences
Demonstrates ethical behavior Displays integrity Identifies conflicts of interest Focuses on product improvement, service quality Realizes that he serves as organizational spokesman Speaks and acts as representative of the group Maintains social distance from subordinates Deals with client complaints Displays commitment to hard work	Demonstrates ethical behavior Reinforces ethical behavior Expresses ethical beliefs Identifies conflicting loyalties and goals Formulates plans regarding conflict of interest Is responsible for reputation of products/services Is responsive to social & community needs Is concerned with public relations Plans realistic ethics policy Provides data for ethical policy decisions Displays professional dedication Has working knowledge of business ethics	Articulates appropriate organizational value system Focuses on company integrity and reputation Behaves as an exemplary role model Operates under stringent personal demands Participates in community affairs Formulates plans for maintaining the goodwill of the organization Maintains respect of important people Develops ethical framework consistent with corporate goals and policies Synthesizes and responds to environmental issues

X OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS